

THE
CONQUERORS OF THE WORLD:

BEING A POPULAR ACCOUNT OF THE
PEOPLES AND RACES OF EUROPE,
THEIR HISTORY, ETHNOLOGY, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.

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INTRODUCTION.

HOW forcible is the contrast between Europe as it was in early times, in the stone age for instance, and its present condition, when Europeans or their descendants dominate the greater part of the world! In primitive Europe, which yet was very old, having passed through geological epochs of immense length and varied character, man was only beginning to achieve a mastery over the conditions of his existence. He was still struggling to keep at bay the wild beasts, such as the lion, the bear, and the hyæna, which had such formidable weapons of attack; learning by painful and slow processes how to kill animals more surely by improving his weapons or his snares, and gradually finding out the benefits of having settled abodes and of growing crops of those plants which he had found useful for food or other purposes. The forest, the marsh, the flood, and the thunderstorm were as masters to him; he could not yet make them his servants. His abode was a cave or a shelter of boughs and leaves; his clothing was of skins of animals; he was ruled by the strongest, a rule gradually tempered by regard for the eldest and wisest. We do not yet sufficiently appreciate the great strides of invention which men made then; and yet they were in their way more mighty and more significant than any which can be made now, and are the foundations of our present prosperity.

The man who first polished the face of a flint, he who found and used a piece of native metal and discovered its enduring power, the man who saw that metal could be melted in a hot fire and who found out that it was more useful in the smelted state, the early builders, stitchers, carvers, blacksmiths, weavers, all these made advances which were relatively enormous. Their conquests made a difference to the comfort and happiness of life which we could only appreciate if we were deprived of all the advantages of civilisation, the hereditary influence of the possession of them by our ancestors, and could suffer for a time the inconveniences, the hindrances, the pains which the primitive Europeans did in their stern competition with nature, and especially with the animal world.

In this condition kinship was a sure and steadily accumulating influence towards the creation of tribes and states; but this tendency was at first very slow in building up large communities. The attacks of animals, the disastrous effects of storms and other natural phenomena, the malaria of the marshes, the juice of poisonous plants, the recurrent difficulty of getting any food at certain seasons, and the fierce struggles with neighbours and competitors for the same food, kept down numbers, and no doubt sometimes carried off whole tribes. Brute force and self-will at first kept small communities together; self-interest, self-defence, and the prestige of victory increased and consolidated them. Captured enemies were made slaves, and thus the tribe gained varied elements. Success made the ordinary warriors more conscious of their importance, and the council or assembly of the tribe grew to have an influence, greater or less according to the strength or weakness of will of the ruler; and the fact that on his death the man in whom the assembly had con-

fidence gained the succession made this council of the strongest still more influential.

After long struggles, one people or group of tribes after another spread over Europe, driving their predecessors from their settlements into less favoured localities, when they did not kill them. It seems impossible now to tell how these early migrations came about, or from what direction they started; but it is certain that the vigour of some races decayed, and some other tribe grew more powerful and multiplied and spread. As a general rule, it was the warlike power which gained and kept the mastery. Invaders could only win by numbers and valour and skill, and it has happened that advances in the arts of peace have been attended with a decay in valour and war which has brought on ruin. Yet the tendency of settled races, whose past courage had made for them an area of undisputed supremacy, has been to grow rich, refined, effeminate, luxurious, and even tyrannical, till they were supplanted by others more lately familiar with hardship and contest.

At first the power of tribes was merely local; cities grew from villages, and controlled the country for a few miles round. Alliances of cities against enemies taught the possibility of combining; and the skill or the ambition of one city caused it to gain or seize upon the chieftainship of the league. Of these varying leagues and dominions we have numerous specimens in early Greek history, which is still one of the great lesson-books of statecraft. It was reserved for the Romans to develop the idea of widespread rule, which Alexander had failed to perpetuate, and to make their discipline and generalship the means of distributing great roads, solid buildings, law, and organised government, letters, and arts, not only over

great part of Europe, but also over many regions of Africa and Asia.

Conquest and dominion over wide areas obtained earlier in Asia and north-east Africa than in Europe; but the lesson once learnt was improved on by Rome, till her traces meet us in customs, laws, usages, and material remains to this day. But Rome had to fall, and the modern era came in. The European peoples had diverged and multiplied, and Rome, successful and rich, failed to develop intelligence which could govern and keep together vast heterogeneous populations. Each people found local leaders, and the same phenomena which had been seen on a smaller scale in Greece were repeated with diversities in the wide theatre of Europe. The ruder, rougher, more robust people developed in more northern and colder climates began to assert themselves successfully against the southern rule, and introduced new principles of freedom combined with attachment by mutual interest and service, which proved stronger than any the world had yet seen. So the Teutonic peoples on the whole have ruled or put down the Latins. Nay, so far had southern powers degenerated, that they could for long make no headway against fanatical invaders from Asia. The Ottoman Turks, who settled in their conquests, have undergone the apparently inevitable degeneracy of luxurious success.

While the land powers in Europe were fighting or developing their resources, the maritime peoples sailed farther and more boldly as their skill grew, and discovered a new world and new routes to known parts. Hence arose the latest phase of European expansion, the creation of new empires beyond its borders, the conquest of older nations, civilised and uncivilised. Settling in scantily peopled regions, the surplus population of Europe has

gone forth to spread and develop the principles found serviceable in narrower limits in Europe; and now, with the exception of China, there is but a small portion of the world that is not under the influence of Europeans or their descendants. Thus masters of the globe, they have in their hands untold responsibility. Fortunately they for the most part carry with them a religion which, even when most mixed with superstition, is loftier, purer, more ennobling than the creeds of other races have proved themselves to be.

War, which formerly claimed such a large percentage of mankind; pestilence, equally terrible as a scourge in the Middle Ages; famine, formerly always threatening some peoples, have ceased to receive anything like the toll they once exacted. Yet in respect to the first-named, the exaction still exists, though in a less painful form. Huge standing armies, incessant re-armaments, and frequent scares testify that peace does not yet reign where the rule of the Prince of peace is professed. But with all their ingenuity in inventing destructive engines and means of warfare, the skill of the Europeans has been still more shown in those triumphs of science and skill by which navigation, travelling, intercommunication, clothing, domestic arrangements, and education have been marvellously facilitated by the last hundred years.

Racially, the Europeans are predominantly of one type, darker in the south, lighter in the north, which may be called Aryan or Indo-European, agreeing in essence with the Hindu Brahman. With comparatively little admixture of Mongol, Finn, Tartar, or Semite, this type has shown itself to be the most capable, the most adaptable, the most persevering where the object seemed worth the cost; while the various types which it contains within

itself, Anglo-Saxon, Celt, Frank, Teuton, Scandinavian, Slav, Græco-Latin, present most attractive combinations of gifts. What the outcome of their rivalry or future growth may be, who can tell? There can be no doubt, however, that this section of "The World's Inhabitants" includes within it the most attractive materials for the student or the merely curious reader.



CONTENTS.

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. THE EARLY INHABITANTS OF THE BRITISH ISLANDS .	1
II. HISTORIC BRITONS	13
III. THE BRITONS OF TO-DAY	29
IV. FRANCE IN THE PAST	54
V. THE MODERN FRENCH	63
VI. THE SPANIARDS AND PORTUGUESE	83
VII. THE ITALIANS IN THE PAST	99
VIII. ITALIANS OF THE PRESENT DAY	107
IX. THE GERMANS	119
X. THE DUTCH OR NETHERLANDERS	139
XI. THE BELGIANS	148
XII. THE SWISS	157
XIII. THE SCANDINAVIANS	166
XIV. THE DANES AND ICELANDERS	178
XV. THE RUSSIANS	187
XVI. THE INHABITANTS OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE	209
XVII. THE SERVIANs, BULGARIANS, AND ROUMANIANS	229
XVIII. THE GREEKS	240
XIX. THE TURKS	257
XX. THE GIPSIES	264
XXI. THE JEWS IN EUROPE	269
XXII. DISTRIBUTION OF EUROPEAN RACES	275



THE CONQUERORS OF THE WORLD.

CHAPTER I.

The Early Inhabitants of the British Islands.

The ages before written records—Nature of the evidence to be relied upon—The men of rough stone implements, contemporary with the Mammoth—Dwellers in caves, valleys, and forests—The earliest race probably long-headed—The old Cave-dwellers, who carved horns—Rude weapons—Bone needles and harpoons—Mode of cooking and drinking—Clothing and ornaments—Portraits of animals on ivory and horn—Human bones—Supposed relation to the Esquimaux—The Age of Polished Stone Implements—Advent of agricultural tribes skilled in arts—Physical characters—Picture of a homestead in early Britain—Domestic animals—Crops—Implement-making—Change of climate—Burial mounds—The Age of Bronze—First appearance of the Aryan Celt in Europe—Survivals from the Bronze period in Ireland—Forts, or raths—Crannoges—The British Celts—Bronze weapons—Clothing and ornaments—Cremation—Stonehenge and Avebury circles.

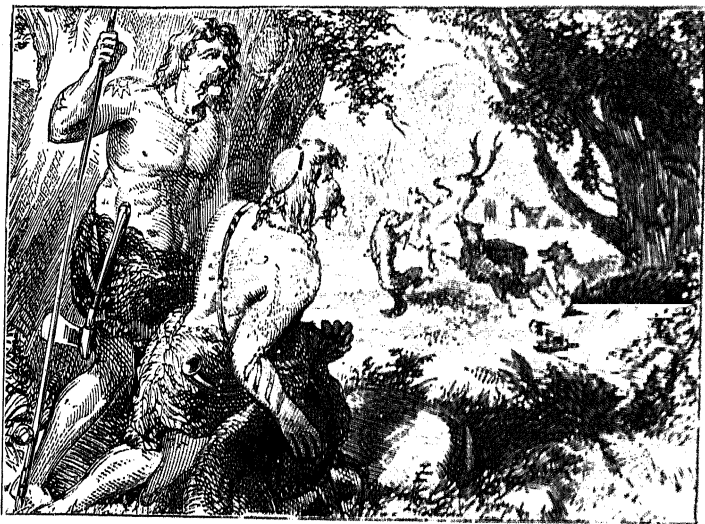


WHO were the first inhabitants of these islands? and how long have they been inhabited?

The answers to these questions depend, not upon historic records in writing, but upon other evidence which scientific men accept as equal in value to written documents, sometimes superior to them, be-

cause documents may be as false as human speech, while a record of nature, if rightly read, may be relied upon as a fact. We must always remember, Nature of the evidence relied upon.

however, the qualifying clause, "if rightly read," for very much turns upon this. But we are not likely to go back to the view some people formerly held, that fossils and other records of ancient life upon the globe were merely sports of nature, or a kind of imitation of living things; or to re-adopt the opinion, long so strongly held, that all remains of animal and plant life upon the earth were deposited by the Noachian Deluge. The evidence of im-



ANCIENT BRITISH HUNTERS.

plements, of excavations, of homes, of manufactures, is as important and trustworthy for past ages as for the present; and man's works survive to tell of man's past existence and achievements, though all trace of his bones or knowledge of the race he belonged to may have vanished.

*THE MEN OF ROUGH STONE IMPLEMENTS,
CONTEMPORARY WITH THE MAMMOTH.*

In England abundant evidence exists, in caves, in valley deposits, and in forest beds, that a race of men inhabited this country at a time when it was still joined to the

Continent of Europe; and it is believed by many that more than one change of level, by which Eng-
 land became alternately an island and a part ^{Dwellers in} of the Continent, has taken place since man ^{caves, valleys,} ^{and forests.} began to inhabit the land. At a period when the great extinct elephant known as the mammoth, two other species of elephant, great rhinoceroses, lions, tigers, and bears lived in England, man first appears, as indicated by the presence of rough manufactured flint implements in the same strata in which remains of these animals are found. The same flint implements have been now discovered in many parts of the world in association with the remains of extinct animals.

What the early hunters were like, we cannot tell. That they existed and made rude weapons to hunt their prey with, appears certain. Simple flint flakes, rough-edged choppers, scrapers, borers, and other ^{The earliest} forms are found. This rude type of mankind ^{race probably} may be compared with the Australian natives; ^{long-headed.} he was destitute of metal, and could not sharpen his stones well. From continental evidence this early race of man in Western Europe is believed to have had a long and comparatively narrow type of skull, with prominent jaws. They are not supposed to be identical with any race now living.

THE OLD CAVE-DWELLERS, WHO CARVED HORNS.

An advance is seen when we come to the early cave-dwellers, of whom we find remains in England. Accumulations of earth containing remains of many species of animals, not merely deposited there at death by the animals themselves or their animal captors, but showing signs of human actions and cookery, are found in many caves, with fragments of charcoal and numerous ^{Rude} flint implements. These remains are very ^{weapons.} often in many successive layers, frequently cemented together by slow deposit of limestone as stalagmite in limestone caves, and testify to a lapse of many thousands of years during their formation. The implements become more finished, though still rude, and more decided lance



MAN IN THE TIME OF THE GIANT BEAR AND MAMMOTH.

heads, choppers, and borers are found, some adapted to be used in a wooden handle. Together with these, in the caves of the Cresswell crags, Derbyshire, was found a small piece of a rib, polished, and ornamented with a cut drawing of a horse. In other caves, such as **Bone needles** Kent's Cavern near Torquay, bone needles and **and harpoons.** awls, and harpoons of reindeer antler have been discovered. Many other engraved and carved implements of this period have been found in France and elsewhere.

It is not supposed that the cave-men used their caves all the year round. They encamped in the open air, except when driven to shelter by stress of weather. They cooked their meat with the aid of hot stones, cutting it with flint flakes, and extracting the marrow **Mode of cook-** from the marrow-bones after they had been **ing and** broken. They also snared birds, and even **drinking.** caught fish. Wood, skin, and horns afforded drinking vessels, but no pottery has been discovered in their remains. Fire they no doubt readily obtained by friction of wood. They used clothes of skin and fur, sewn together by their bone needles with sinews. Lumps of red oxide of iron in their caves suggest that they painted their faces; while perforated shells, bones, ivory, and **Clothing and** teeth indicate that they wore chains and neck- **ornaments.** laces. A remarkable carved figure on a bone in a French cave shows an ox feeding and a man creeping up behind him and throwing a spear; and this is by no means a solitary instance of their artistic skill. How far beyond a mere animal existence such people must have been advanced, when they could not only invent and construct skilful weapons, and cook meat, but **Portraits of** draw recognisable portraits of their animal sur- **animals on** roundings, to be evidence of their high attain- **ivory and** ments to us after unknown thousands of years, as well as **bone.** of the actual features of animals otherwise only known to us by bones.

A tooth appears to be the only definite human fragment of this date found in this country, in the cave **Human** of Plas Newydd, near St. Asaph, North Wales. **bones.** But on the Continent several good finds of human bones

have taken place, indicating a long-headed race, with forward projecting lower jaw. Some of these are buried deep under accumulations of later times.

Professor Boyd Dawkins believes that the ancient cave-man was of a different race from the ruder earlier race, and that he presents decided features of resemblance to the Esquimaux. Many curious similarities in habits seem to connect them together. The fact of few human bones of the period being found is easily accounted for by the abundance of hyenas, and the absence of any indications of interments, which in later ages are very numerous. The total lack of regard for the dead will be noted when we speak of the Esquimaux. They use the same kinds of stone scrapers, ivory handles, needles, spears, and arrows, as the cave-men did. Even their modes of ornamenting them by sculptured heads and figures is the same; and it seems indeed probable that in the Esquimaux we see the direct descendants of the race which once lived in caves in England and France.

THE MEN OF POLISHED STONE IMPLEMENTS.

The old order changed and gave place to new. The hunter was displaced by the agriculturist. Western Europe and Britain were gradually occupied by men of more settled habits, possessing domestic animals, and capable of manufacturing stone implements highly polished and showing considerable ingenuity in construction. Pottery, too, was among the arts of this new race. From various indications, it is believed that this people flourished when Egypt and Assyria were already highly civilised empires.

As far as can be gathered from varied remains in forests, caves, fortified places, and burial mounds, these people were short in stature, about five feet five inches high, with skulls long or oval in shape, the projection of the hinder part being especially marked. The jaws were rather small, and the lower jaw did not project markedly; the forehead was comparatively low. People of this type are not driven so completely out

Supposed
relation
to the
Esquimaux.

Advent of
agricultural
tribes skilled
in arts.

Physical
characters.

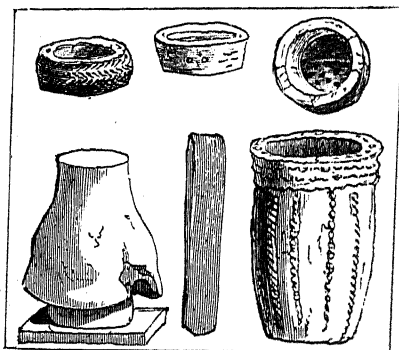
of Europe as the cave-men; but their characters are to be recognised at this day among the Basques of the north of Spain—a short, dark-complexioned people, with black hair and eyes and a long head, and probably identical with the Iberians, from whom the Iberian peninsula is named.

Prof. Boyd Dawkins, who is one of those most entitled to speak with confidence on this subject, gives a vivid picture of a homestead of this neolithic or later stone period in his "Early Man in Britain." He says: "If we could in imagination take our stand on the summit of a hill commanding an extensive view, in almost any part of Great Britain or Ireland in the Neolithic period, we should look upon a landscape somewhat of this kind: Thin lines of smoke, rising from among the trees of the dense virgin forest at our feet, would mark the position of the Neolithic homesteads, and of the neighbouring stockaded camp, which afforded refuge in time of need; while here and there a gleam of gold would show the small patch of ripening wheat. We enter a track in the forest, and thread our way to one of the clusters of homesteads, passing herds of goats and flocks of horned sheep, or disturbing a troop of horses or small short-horned oxen, or stumbling upon a swine-herd tending the hogs in their search after roots. We should probably have to defend ourselves against the attack of some of the large dogs used as guardians of the flock against bears, wolves, and foxes, and for hunting the wild animals. At last, on emerging into the clearing, we should see a little plot of flax or small-eared wheat, and near the homestead the inhabitants, clad some in linen and others in skins, and ornamented with necklaces and pendants of stone, bone, or pottery, carrying on their daily occupations. Some are cutting wood with stone axes with a wonderfully sharp edge, fixed in wooden handles, with stone adzes or gouges, or with little saws composed of carefully notched pieces of flint about three or four inches long, splitting it with stone wedges, scraping it with flint flakes. Some are at work preparing handles for the spears,

Picture of a
homestead
in early
Britain.

Domestic
animals.

Crops.



EARLY EUROPEAN VESSELS, ETC.

shafts for the arrows, and wood for the bows, or for the broad paddles used for propelling the canoes. Others are busy grinding and sharpening the various implements making stone tools, scraping skins with implements ground to a circular edge, or carving various implements out of bone

and antler with sharp splinters of flint; while the women are preparing the meal with pestles and mortars and grain rubbers, and cooking it on the fire, generally outside the house, or spinning thread with spindle and distaff, or weaving it with a rude loom."

During this period Britain was gradually sinking, so that many forests were submerged round our coasts, and the island was permanently cut off from the Continent, substantially as it is

Change of now. The climate. climate was probably more severe and damper in many parts than now. The people were separated into tribes, frequently at war with one another, as evidenced by the numerous earthworks and camps they have left, and the javelins, arrow heads, and spear heads found. Burial



EARLY EUROPEAN VESSELS.

spirit world. It is remarkable that the artistic powers possessed by the cave-dwellers of the previous period were not present in the newer race. They scarcely attained to representing their favourite implements, still less to carvings of animals.

THE AGE OF BRONZE.

There is reason to believe that while the dark short people just described were still in almost undisputed possession of England, Western Europe was being occupied by a new race, the first appearance in the West of the Aryans from Central Asia. They were the ancestors of the present Celts, much taller than the people whom they conquered, and additionally armed by the knowledge of bronze working, and the possession of bronze weapons. Later, when their civilisation was fully established, they advanced into the British Islands, and gradually drove back the older inhabitants. They conquered Ireland later still; and their descendants there retained their primitive habits far down into historic time.

First appearance of the Aryan Celt in Europe.

So late as the sixteenth century, says Sir William Wilde, "the native Irish retained their wandering habits, tilling a piece of fertile land in the spring, then retiring with their herds to the booleys, or dairy habitations (generally in mountain districts), in the summer, and moving about where the herbage afforded sustenance to their cattle. They lived,

Survivals from the Bronze period in Ireland.

as Edmund Spenser describes them in the reign of Elizabeth, 'on their milk and white meats' (curds, cheese, with meal, and probably calves' flesh, etc.), and returning in autumn to secure their crops, they remained in community in their forts or entrenched villages during the winter. The remains of thousands of these forts, or raths, still stud the lowlands of every county in Ireland, notwithstanding the thousands that have been obliterated. They are earthen enclosures, generally circular, and varying in extent from a few perches to an acre or more, and afforded protection to the inhabitants and their flocks, against the ravages of beasts of prey

Forts, or raths.

with which the country then abounded, or against the predatory incursions of hostile tribes either in war or during a cattle raid. A breastwork of earth from four to eight feet high surrounded the enclosure, being the material ready at hand, and the most easily worked, and was probably surmounted by a stake fence."

Other survivals from ancient time in Ireland **Crannoges.** are the crannoges, or platforms of clay and stone, supported by timber, in the lakes. As late as 1641, Sir Phelim O'Neill took refuge in one of these. Wooden cabins, made of wattles and clay, and the cloghauns or small stone houses still found, are other Irish survivals.

The Celts of Britain were tall and stalwart, large-brained, commanding and harsh in aspect. The chieftain of Gristhorpe, whose remains are in the museum **The British Celts.** at York, must, according to Dr. Beddoe, have looked a true king of men, with his athletic frame, his broad forehead, beetling brows, strong jaws, and aquiline profile.

The Bronze age arrived fully developed in the West. The bronze is uniform, containing about 12 per cent. of tin and 88 of copper. The weapons and implements, too, are not remarkably varied. The first forms appear to have been modelled like the stone weapons already in use; and they gradually got better shaped and adapted to handles. The better bronze weapons, of **Bronze weapons.** course, were fashioned in the succeeding age of iron. The ornamentation of the implements is in simple geometrical patterns; representations of animal forms are not found.

Linen and woollen weaving were known, though perhaps woven cloth was only the luxury of the rich. Shaving the face became fashionable, while the hair was often worn in long plaits, and great hairpins were used. Stone, bone, and bronze ornaments were abundant; and amber and gold came into use for decoration. **Clothing and ornaments.**

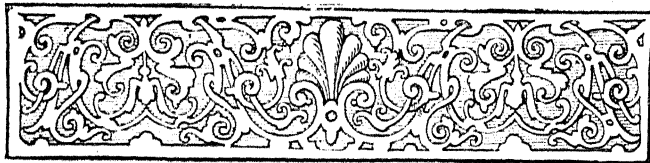
Cremation prevailed, and the ashes of the dead were reserved in urns. Some articles possessed by the dead were burned with them, for their use in the spirit world, together with food. A barrow or **Cremation.**

cairn was erected over the funeral urn, and funeral feasts were subsequently held, the cairn being added to at the same time.

The great temples of Stonehenge and Avebury in Wiltshire, and other stone and earthen circles, are believed to belong to this period. They are usually in the centre of a district thickly crowded with funeral mounds; and there is no reason to doubt that they were places of religious worship. Many of the stones are very large, and must have required prodigious labour to transport to the spots where they are found. Some portions are of rocks which could not have been obtained nearer than Wales, Cornwall, or the Channel Islands.



ANCIENT BRITON WITH CORACLE.



CHAPTER II.

Historic Britons.

The Iron age—Diffusion of iron from Asia—Habits of the iron users—Early forgery of coins—Visits of the Phœnicians—Old British forests and wild animals—Dress of the Ancient Britons—The Picts—Mines—The Roman period—Effects of the Roman Conquest—The Roman province Christianised—Vitality of the Ancient Britons—Our English ancestors—Invasion of Teutons—Anglo-Saxon houses and domestic life—An Anglo-Saxon dialogue—Drinking and social customs—Women and children—Hunting and other sports—Travelling dangerous—The Danes and Northmen—The Normans—Minor immigrations—Scotch and Irish settlers—Modern movements and their results—Norman manners and customs—Norman castles—The Norman dinner-table—Norman furniture—Rise of gallantry and chivalry—Games of skill and chance—Minstrels—Rough sports—Hawking—Advance of luxury—The former inhabitants of Scotland and Ireland—The Cymry—The Erse and the Gaels—Celtic languages—The Scots' invasion of North Britain—The Lowland Scotch are Anglo-Saxons—Picts and Caledonians—Caledonian and Welsh names—Norse invasions.

THE IRON AGE.



THE knowledge and use of iron marks the next great epoch. It is believed to have come from Asia, and to have been diffused gradually through Europe. It would first come in small quantities from the Continent; and then the discovery of

Diffusion of
iron
from Asia.

native stores of iron ore, and the learning of modes of

smelting it, would render it more and more abundant, till at last it supplanted bronze, even for articles for which the latter was more serviceable.

The Iron age does not appear to have been marked by any special change of race. The greater abundance of **Habits of the iron users.** good weapons probably was attended by greater combinations of powerful tribes, so thus petty kingdoms arose. Cremation did not die out, but burial at full length was also practised. Curved patterns, often complex, are found on ornaments; but animal forms are scarce. Coins of gold (later of silver and bronze) first



SAXON CUP WITH ROMANISED ORNAMENT.

appear with designs which are remote imitations of Greek coins, such as those of Philip of Macedon. It is not likely that the earliest coins found are of earlier date than 200 B.C. Their use was most abundant in the South and South-east of the island. The early Britons became not only accomplished workers in metal, but even learnt the **Early forgery art of forgery,** making false gold and silver **of coins.** coins of copper or bronze, covered with a thin plating of gold. Here we come well into the period connected with us by direct historic records.

The Phœnicians are recorded to have visited Britain (Cornwall) and Ireland about B.C. 500, under Himilco. After crossing the Bay of Biscay, he arrived at the Islands of the Estryrnides, "rich in tin and lead, and inhabited by a numerous, proud, and industrious population accustomed to commerce, and in the habit of going to sea in poor leathern boats (coracles). Thence he sailed two days farther to grass-green 'Insula Sacra' (Ireland), inhabited by the races of the Hibernians." The Estryrnides were afterwards called Cassiterides, or Tin Islands, but were very vaguely known; only the Phœnicians and the Greeks were generally believed to obtain tin from them. Aristotle is the first who names the British Islands beyond the Celtae as "Albion and Ierne." No doubt the Phœnicians introduced very many manufactured articles into Britain.

At the beginning of the historic period, Britain was much more covered with forests than now, with more morasses and a damper climate. Bears, wild boars, wolves and foxes, deer and beaver, abounded. Reindeer still existed in the north of Scotland. Little circular huts of wood, wattles, or stone were the chief dwellings, and narrow, devious paths connected the villages. Agriculture was far more advanced in southern than in northern Britain, where the pasture of cattle was predominant.

In personal appearance, the Romans describe the south-eastern Britons as tall, long-haired, and rather fair (*i.e.*, as compared with the swarthy Romans), wearing a kind of trousers and a belted tunic, with a plaid over it. From this some derive the name Celt (the kilt-wearing or clothed people). Sandals were worn on the feet. Horses, shields, and long swords were used in war; chariots, often with scythes on each side, were signs of higher-class warfare. The inhabitants of the interior and North still wore skins; many were nearly naked, and stained and tattooed their skins with woad. Hence the Romans called them Picts (*picti*, or painted). Mines were worked to a considerable extent; and many things were exported, chiefly to Gaul,

Visits of the
Phœnicians.Old British
forests and
wild animals.Dress of the
ancient
Britons.

The Picts.

including tin, gold, silver, iron, corn, cattle, and even slaves and hunting dogs. Their language is declared by Strabo not to have differed greatly from that of the Gauls. But this statement, of course, applies principally to the southern tribes, who were largely of the same race as the Celtic Belgæ, who then inhabited a great part of Gaul.

Mines.

As Dr. Beddoe says : " The history of the British Isles is that of an irregular or intermittent current of invasion from the neighbouring continent—invasion of ideas, of customs, and of arts, even more than of human beings." And he expresses the opinion that, anthropologically, Britain was always a stage further back in development than the Continent.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

From this time forward we enter upon the domain of historic records. For a full account of this and subsequent periods, the History of England must of course be studied in separate works. Here we can only refer to the successive races who gained a dominant influence, and the way in which they modified the nation. The effects of the Roman conquest of the island were most marked.

Effects of
the Roman
conquest.

The excellent main roads which they made greatly facilitated communication. Their strong power put an end to many a feud between tribes ; and the decrease of warfare led to an increase of agriculture and peaceful arts. Mining was largely developed. Fowls, geese, pheasants, and other useful animals were introduced. Roman towns and fortified camps were established in different parts of the country ; and many an old camp is indicated by the termination " cester " or " chester." Britain became a province of Rome, and later a Christian country, under the Emperor Constantine. Many Romans and more Roman subjects of varied provinces, must have lived and died and had offspring in Britain. The Britons themselves became considerably Romanised, and used Roman names. Very many places also had Roman names. Yet few of them survived the departure of the Romans. It is remarkable

The Roman
province
Christianised.

how little trace they left upon the physical characters of the people they conquered; and the Christian religion, which was their State religion, was driven into the Welsh fastnesses by the Anglo-Saxon conquerors.

The ancient British (Celtic) peoples showed great vitality. They must have preserved their individuality as distinctly as the Welsh and Irish of the present day; and resumed without difficulty their sway when the Roman legions were withdrawn. Their ultimate subjection was due to the arrival of a stronger people than the degenerate Romans. They were pagans, it is true, but yet more vigorous and more intellectual, and representing a higher type of civilisation. These, the Angles or English, and the Saxons had already begun to arrive on the West coast of England; and various bodies of Germans, captives and others, had no doubt been settled in Britain by the Romans.

OUR ENGLISH ANCESTORS.

That tribes of German Teutons invaded England and finally conquered it, migrating in such large numbers as to really re-people the East and South, is undoubted. The ancient inhabitants were gradually driven towards Wales and Cornwall; and the worship of German gods, Thor, Woden, etc., was firmly introduced. It would be profitless here to discuss the precise localities in the North-west of Europe from which particular tribes came. It suffices to say that they did not come from France; and that Scandinavians and Danes made distinct invasions at later periods, although probably some Norwegians landed in Scotland before or during the Roman occupation. The Anglo-Saxon invaders were tall, blond, and fair-haired, contrasting greatly with the people they conquered.

Passing to a description of how these ancestors of ours lived, it appears that the Anglo-Saxon houses were comparatively simple, except those of chieftains. The lower part of the walls was of masonry, the upper of wood. A central hall, or reception room, was a marked feature of every considerable

Vitality of
the ancient
Britons.

Invasions of
Teutons.

Anglo-Saxon
houses and
domestic life.

dwelling. Hangings of plain cloth or of tapestry surrounded the wall, which also had hooks or pegs to hang things upon. Chimneys were not yet used, and fires



ANGLO-SAXON LADY.

were made on the floor, probably in the centre. Benches were the principal furniture of the hall. The table was a board placed upon trestles, and removed when the meal was ended. Hence it is readily seen whence we derive our expression "board and lodging." Breakfast about nine, and dinner, at noon, were the principal meals; supper was probably of later introduction. Their food was on the whole simple—bread, butter, milk, and cheese being the staple; vegetables, beans, and fish were much eaten; and bacon was the chief meat. Much of their meat was salted, and eaten boiled.

An interesting Anglo-Saxon dia-

logue mentions prominently among persons accessory to food supply, the salter who stocked the store rooms and cellars and supplied the (salt) butter and cheese; the baker, without whom every table would seem empty; and the cook, who appears to have been less essential. "If you expel me from your society," says the cook, "you will be obliged to eat your vegetables green, and your flesh meat raw, nor can you have any fat broth." He is shut up with "We care not, for we can ourselves cook our provisions, and spread them on the table." Forks were unknown and knives were few; the hands were still freely used in eating.

An Anglo-Saxon dialogue.

Drinking was largely indulged in after dinner. Silver and gold cups were treasured by the rich; but the drinking-horn was for common use. Ale and mead were the principal drinks; and honey was largely produced for mead-making. Wine was rare and expensive. The drinkers pledged one another; and marvellous tales and personal exploits were recounted. National poetry was recited; and frequently instruments such as the harp, pipe, trumpet, etc., enlivened the festivity. The professed minstrel was a well-known character.

Drinking and social customs.

The Anglo-Saxon ladies performed many household offices, and were expert at spinning, weaving, needlework, and embroidery. They were kind to their children, who were however swaddled at birth, and often allowed to lie upon the hearth close to the fire, in considerable risk of burning. Civil marriage by purchase was frequent; and divorce or separation was not rare. The women are especially represented as using very harsh measures with their servants or slaves; they were severely beaten, and put in fetters, on what we should now consider slight provocation. Yet almsgiving was abundantly practised, and crowds of poor ate the rich man's bread.

Women and children.

The chief national sport was then, as now, hunting, or which the immense forests gave ample opportunity. It is recorded of King Edward the Confessor, that "there was one earthly enjoyment in which he chiefly delighted,

which was, hunting with fleet hounds, whose opening in the woods he used with pleasure to encourage; other sports, and again, with the pouncing of birds, whose nature it is to prey on their kindred species. In these exercises, after hearing divine service in the morning, he employed himself whole days." Boar and deer hunting



NORMAN SHIP.

were not uncommon. Hawks were largely kept. Horse-manship was cultivated; chariots and carts were few.

Hospitality was pretty general; inns were few and little commodious. Travellers, especially merchants, went in companies; the solitary traveller was suspected, or liable to be robbed. Robbery and cheating were frequent, so that a law was made forbidding buying and selling without witnesses.

We need say little about the invasions of the Danes and Northmen. They came in very considerable numbers from the ninth to the eleventh centuries, and left a very decided mark upon the north-eastern counties, in which they for the most part settled —Northumberland, Yorkshire, and Lincolnshire including the chief settlements. The evidences of this may still be seen in the faces of many of the inhabitants. The Northmen too conquered the Isle of Man and Cumberland, which were long seats of their power; yet the Celts remained in Man, their language gained supremacy, and persists to the present time.

The Danes
and North-
men.

The Normans, who came in such numbers in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, were in the main compounded of the same elements as the English; but they appear to have had a larger admixture of Scandinavian blood, and also to have included a large Celtic infusion of Belgic Gauls. This peculiar combination no doubt gave them their great vigour, by which they introduced into the English people a large proportion of foreign blood. Subsequently more Frenchmen were introduced, yet not so as to markedly influence the English type. Flemings, Normans, Huguenots, driven by religious persecution, have at various later times come over in considerable numbers. Germans, driven by Louis XIV.'s persecution from the Palatinate, and many other Germans since, including German Jews, have swelled our numbers. But the population of England has been far more affected in modern times by the immigration of Scotchmen and Irishmen. Twelve per cent. of Scottish surnames have been reckoned in a large London club, but only one per cent. of pure Irish. The percentage of Welsh names was five. This last indicates the fact of the large migration of Welshmen into England.

The Normans.

Minor immi-
grations.

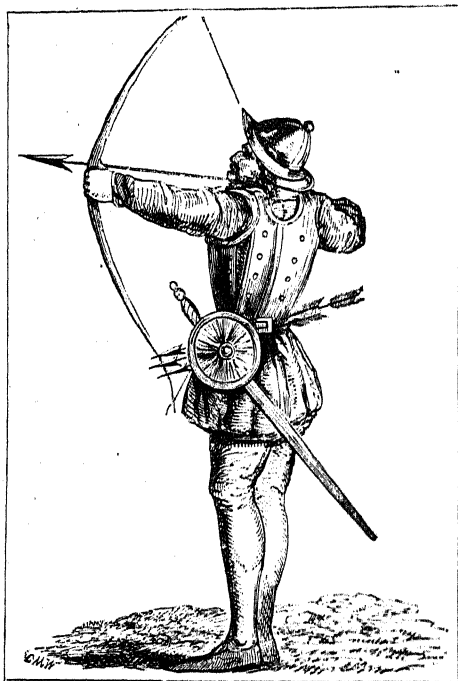
Scotch and
Irish settlers.

The immigration of the Irish into Scotland has been great in recent years, there being now over six per cent. of the population Irish-born. In England there are two-and-a-half per cent. of persons of Irish birth, and probably four more of Irish

Modern move-
ments, and
their results.

blood. Dr. Beddoe, a very careful observer, says: "In opposition to the current opinion, it would seem that the Welsh rise most in commerce, the Scotch coming after them, and the Irish nowhere. The people of Welsh descent and name hold their own fairly in science, the Scotch do more, the Irish less. But when one looks to the attainment of military or political distinction, the case is altered. Here the Scotchmen, and especially the Highlanders, bear away the palm; the Irish retrieve their position, and the Welsh are little heard of."

NORMAN MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.



ENGLISH ARCHER.

The Normans introduced more luxury; and the stern restraint in which William the Conqueror kept them soon degenerated into licence and extravagance. They gradually erected those massive and lordly castles,

Norman which
castles.

became too often the strongholds of vice and the centres of freebooting. Important rooms began to be elevated above the ground floor, protecting the rich man's guests from the rabble

who congregated about the more public hall, and frequently got possession of the victuals intended for the guests.

The Norman dinner-table was not strikingly different from the Anglo-Saxon. Forks were not used, The Norman dinner-table. and many viands were brought to the guests on the spits on which they had been cooked. Glass cups and bowls were superseding those of horn; and wine became more abundant. Sauces of various herbs were largely used. The common people ate little meat. Cheese was their most nutritious food, and bread their staple.

The simplicity of furniture was preserved; tables were still boards on trestles, benches were the seats, chairs and stools being few. Often stone seats or recesses in walls ran round rooms. Beds grew more ornamental Norman furniture. and comfortable, and later, roofs at the head of the bed came into use. Hospitality was much practised towards the gentry and the well-to-do, while the poor had a hard time of it, and were plundered as well.

Manners on the whole were licentious, yet in these ages the germs of refinement arose from the forms of politeness and gallantry taught in great men's houses. Rise of gallantry and chivalry. These were practically schools of good breeding, and were resorted to by youths and maidens of good family, who wished to rise in consideration. The class of flatterers and spongers on the nobles however grew apace, and were the ready instruments of their patrons' base desires. Light was scanty at night, rooms were few, visitors and families were crowded into few rooms, often with little regard to decency.

Chess and draughts were favourite mediæval games; but when cards were introduced they speedily absorbed attention, and gambling did not tarry long behind. Games of skill and chance. Minstrels were yet more favoured than in early English times, and a greater variety of instruments, including rude organs, were played. Many of the minstrels were wanderers, others were in the pay of the king or of great lords. Minstrels. It is related that several hundred minstrels took part in the wedding festivities of Margaret, daughter of Edward I. To accommodate the minstrels, a large music gallery at one end of the hall was introduced. The musicians, by an easy transition, took up other forms of amusement,

such as magic and sleight of hand, and were known as *jongleurs* (Latin, *joculatores*, from *jocus*, a game), the modern jugglers.



ENGLISH INNKEEPER OF SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Sports became more diversified. Wrestling, throwing weights, and archery flourished side by side with lower amusements, such as bear and bull
Rough sports.

baiting and cock fighting. Bulls were not allowed to be killed by butchers until they had been baited. Even Queens Mary and Elizabeth were present at these sports.

Hawking became a sign of gentility; and hawks were most skilfully trained and tended. They were upon the owners' hands when they visited, or even in church. All kinds of birds were hunted in this

Hawking.

way, and largely by ladies. Spaniels started the game, the hawk was unhooded, and brought it down. Hunting of foxes, deer, and hares was common, and much liked by all classes.

In the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, simpler habits gave way to greater luxury at table; and the Advance of monks luxury.

were as forward in this direction as any class. A tolerably moderate dinner in



LOWLAND SCOTCH FARMER (18TH CENTURY).

the fourteenth century includes boar's head, a rich potage, beef, mutton, pork, swan, rabbit, mallard, pheasant, chicken, teal, woodcock, snipe, and various complex dishes. Elaborate made dishes and rich seasonings seem to have been preferred to the traditional "roast beef of old England." Indeed, in many cases, traditional dishes, customs, and ideas are those which we now select as the

best of old fashions, though they may formerly have been honoured rather in the breach than in the observance. The Reformation period fortunately introduced a good deal of that sturdiness and self-denial into English private life which have ever since been characteristic of it. The Restoration times were marked by laxity of morals and an extensive pursuit of pleasure, followed by the general carelessness of the first half of the eighteenth century. From this the nation was awakened by the loss of the American Colonies, the fiery preaching of Wesley and Whitefield, and the horrors of the French Revolution, which ushered in the modern period.

THE FORMER INHABITANTS OF SCOTLAND, IRELAND AND WALES.

In the absence of skeletons in sufficient numbers, and the greater lack of trustworthy records, it is not profitable to dogmatise on the ancient inhabitants of Scotland and Ireland. Their considerable Iberian, Celtic, and Scandinavian admixture is well known. Their precise migrations are not known, perhaps can never now be ascertained. The Cymry (whom some believe to be related to the Cimbri who fought against Rome in the time of Marius, and who at one time peopled such widely separate districts as the Crimea and the Cimbric Peninsula of Jutland), were the tribe or nation of Celts which retained predominance in Wales when they were being progressively conquered in or shut out from the rest of Southern Britain. They have preserved most distinctly perhaps of all the ancient British races their language and traditions.

The earlier race of Celts appear to be represented now by some of the pure Irish or Erse inhabitants of Ireland and the Gaelic Highlanders of Scotland. The Galli, who gave their name to Gaul, were probably their nearest relatives on the Continent. "In the names which all these people continued to give each other," says Dr. Nicholas, "we recognise the accents of ancient consanguinity. The French, descendants in the main of the ancient Galli, call the Welsh *Gallois*; the

Welsh call the Irish *Gwyddyl*; the Highlanders call both themselves and the Irish *Gael*—distinguishing themselves as ‘Gael Albinnich’ (Alban Gaels) from the Irish ‘Gael Erinnich’ (Gaels of Erin). In fact, it is hardly a question

whether we should not regard Celtic the various languages.

Celtic languages,—Erse, Gaelic, and Manx, on the one hand, Welsh, Armorican (Breton), and Cornish, on the other,—as so many dialects of one original language.”

Strange as it may seem, the Scots were not originally inhabitants of Scotland, but immigrants from Ireland. The Scotch might fairly claim a share of Ireland as theirs; and the settlement of so many Scotch families in Ireland in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was but a return to their ancestral territory.

The Scots’
invasion of
North
Britain.



LOWLAND SCOTCH GIRL (18TH CENTURY).

Scotland was called Alban for ages before it received its modern name. One of the most astonishing mutations of history is that by which the Lowland dialect of English has become universally characterised as Scotch, while the Celtic language, formerly known as Scotch, is characterised as Irish. We shall not discuss the precise relations of Picts

The Lowland
Scotch Anglo-
Saxons.

and Caledonians. The former became noted later, the Picts and latter were earlier prominent. Tacitus believed Caledonians them to have a German origin, on account of their large limbs and red hair; but it is not certain that they had any large infusion of German blood. However, even at an early period, many settlers from the marauding hosts of Norway joined them and modified the Highland races considerably. Sutherland is so named as the



ENGLISH WATCHMAN (18TH CENTURY).

southern portion of their territory. Many of the Caledonian ancient names and Welsh in Caledonia names. agree closely with those of Wales. Thus we find "Pen" and "Ben" designating mountains. The river names—Tay and Taw, Dee, Clyde and Clwyd, Avon, Esk, Usk, Teviot, Teivi, sufficiently prove close relationship among the peoples. Cumbria (Cumberland, Westmoreland, etc.) remained Celtic long after Lowland Scotland had become Anglo-Saxonised.

Norse invasions had a more important influence upon Scotland than upon England. The great invasions of the ninth century made the Norwegians rulers of the Shetlands, the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and the Isle of Man; and parts of the mainland were dominated or tyrannised over till the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The Norse language was even adopted in Shetland, Orkney, and Caithness. The Irish coasts, too, especially the principal ports, were much invaded by the Danes and Northmen in the ninth century, who exercised more or less sway over the country; but they did not remain in power beyond the eleventh century, and left fewer traces of their presence in Ireland than in Scotland.



CHAPTER III.

The Britons of To-day.

Complexity of origin—Fusion a comparatively late process—Salient features of our history—Passion for exploration, colonisation, and trade—Thirst for empire and genius for government—Successes and failures—Manufactures and inventions—Popular liberty with monarchy—Aristocracy of feudalism, wealth, and intellect—Physiognomy of Britons and distinctions of districts—The typical English woman—The Southern Counties' people—The Cornish—East Anglians—The Midlanders—The Welsh—Giraldus de Barry on the Welsh character—The Yorkshire character—The Northumbrians—Lowland Scotland—The tall Galloway people—The Highlands and Islands—Character of the Gaelic-speaking people—The Highlander physically—Other Celtic types—Scandinavian types—The Islanders—The Irish people—General characteristics of British—Seriousness and industry—Athletic sports—Enterprise and solidity—Not imaginative or idealising—Reticence and coldness—Truth and freedom.



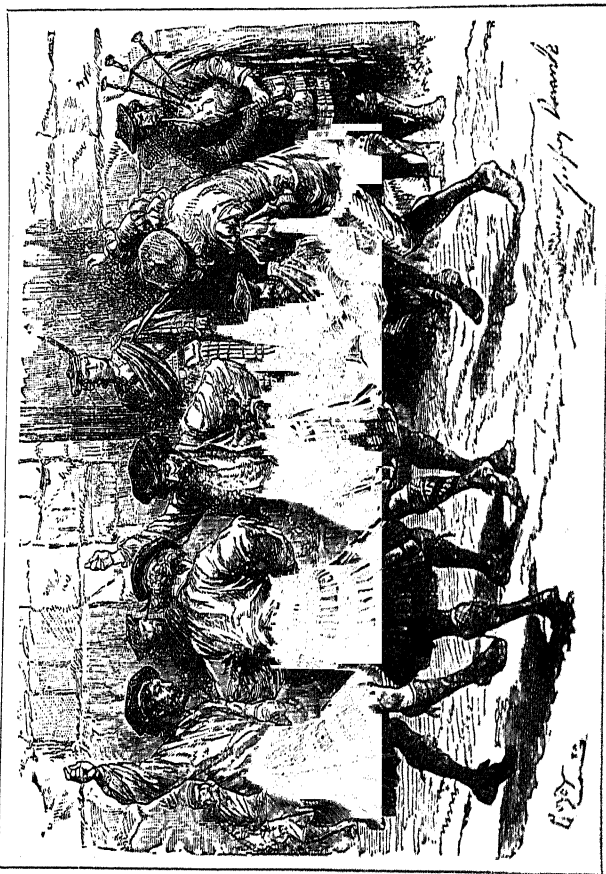
IN our own days, the British people,—as we must, for want of a better name, call the inhabitants of the British Islands,—are far from being homogeneous. To say

nothing of the distinctions of

Englishman, Scotchman, Irishman, Welshman, who that knows them will say that the distinctions between a West Country man and a Kentish man, a Staffordshire man and

an East Anglian, a Yorkshireman and a Northumbrian, are few or slight; or that a Lowland Scotchman is very

like a Highlander, or a Hebridean, or a Shetlander; or that Ulster, Connaught, Leinster, and Munster do not represent perfectly distinguishable types?



HIGHLAND DANCE.

The fact is, that fusion of these different varieties of Briton has really been in extensive operation but a short time, compared with the centuries during which divergence was, on the whole, being produced and intensified.

Since 'railway travelling revolutionised modern life, a



YORKSHIRE FACTORY GIRLS.

rapid intermixture of classes and varieties has gone on



LANCASHIRE PIT-BROW WOMEN.

with accelerating speed; and we find in great cities a mingling which bids fair to produce an average Briton in a century or two who shall possess, it may be, all his varied ancestors' excellences, and but few of their faults. Specialisation advances apace side by side with this, it is true; but it is a specialisation of particular faculties, according to trades and occupations, which leaves the broad outlines similar. All the characteristic qualities of special varieties of Briton are being absorbed into the great assimilating centres of London, Manchester, Birmingham, and the like; and a few centuries hence it will be impossible to trace in detail the commingling which the English people have undergone. We may then hope to be an iron race like the Roman, an intellectual race like the Greek, an ingenious race like the English, an enterprising race like the Scotch, a plastic and witty race like the Irish; but we shall scarcely be so polite a people as the French, so passionate a people as the Italian, a drilled people like the German, an all-enduring people like the Chinese.

Fusion a comparatively late process.

We may recount here a few of the salient features of our history. Dominion on the Continent the English can scarcely be said to have sought; it came to them with their foreign kings, and foreign influences especially tempted them to seek to preserve and extend it. But the Teutonic race pressing into Western Europe was too strong for the comparatively few English to master, as it still is. Later, the English have tried to prevent the onward march of another great nation, the Russian, and have so far succeeded that Constantinople is not yet in their hands. But the vast tides of immigration from East to West have not been permanently rolled back in the past. We are ourselves monuments of successive tides. We are attempting to roll back Russia by bolstering up a race far more alien to ourselves in blood than the Slavonic. The attempt may not improbably fail. There is room for Russia as well as for England; and the policy which has led us to control Egypt and may hereafter lead us to dominate Palestine, is sounder than that of relying on the Turks.

Salient features of our history.



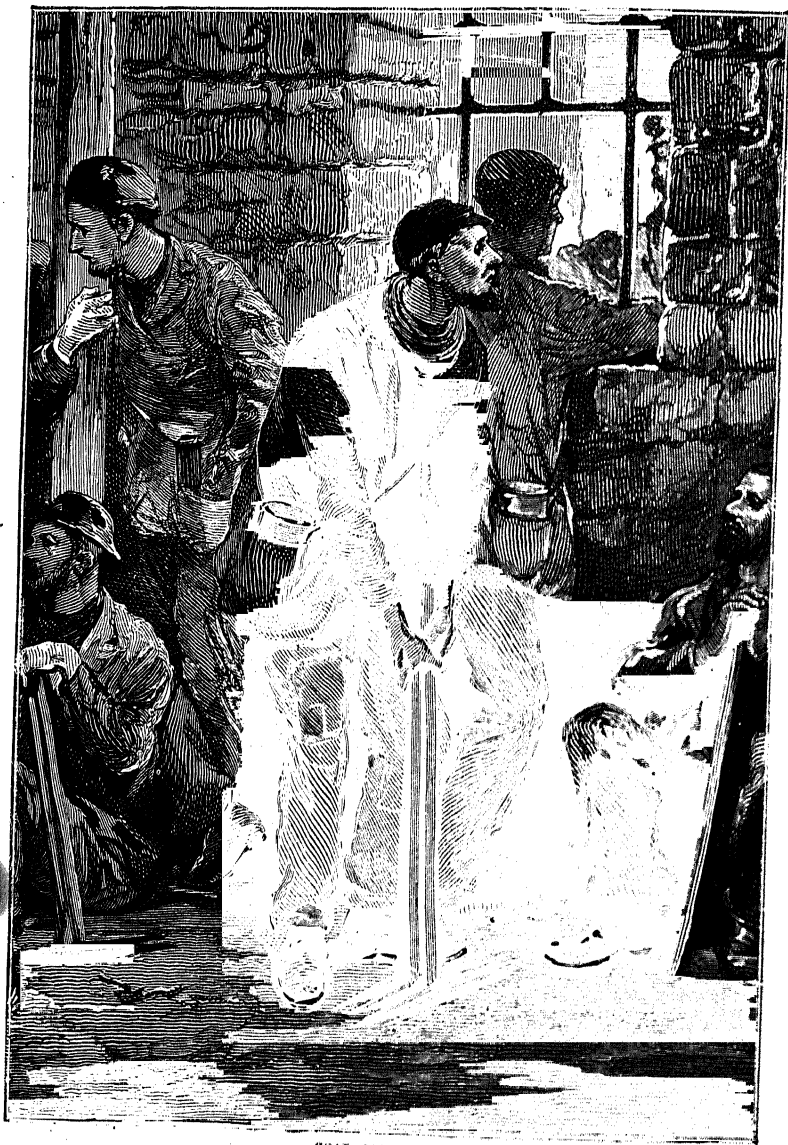
ENGLISH PEASANT GIRL.

As to the chances of foreign invasion of England, they have scarcely been considerable for centuries, they are less than ever now; and success in such an enterprise is impossible while the English character remains what it is.

A certain adventurous and exploring character, derived from our Saxon and Scandinavian ancestors, rather than the pressure of surplus population, has made the English the foremost, though not the earliest explorers of the world, and the greatest colonisers of modern times. Like the ancient



YARMOUTH BOATMAN.



COAL MINERS.

Greeks, we have derived from our marine surroundings a familiarity with and a love of the sea, that have carried us cheerfully through dangers and difficulties, to plant our race wherever climate permitted and trade was possible. Enterprise being the first condition, love of trade,—a desire for useful articles, and for obtaining and supplying them profitably,—has been the second factor in developing a thirst for empire, which, denied gratification in Europe, has issued in the establishment of the greatest empire ever controlled under one head. Fourthly, the thirst for empire has begotten, or gone alongside with, a genius for government. Having first learned to govern ourselves,—by rule-of-thumb and common-sense measures, it is true, rather than by theoretical principles,—we have wished to govern other races, widely different. Here we have sometimes failed, through *hauteur*, through conceit, through unwillingness to believe that what was good for ourselves might not be so good for subject races. We have had to learn the hard lessons, that national and racial habits cannot be changed in a decade; that new customs and habits take longer to develop than old ones to be destroyed; that blood speaks more strongly often than kindness, still more strongly than harsh dictation. But these lessons have been and are still being learned; and it is the proud distinction of the free-born Briton to carry with him, and gradually to spread, wherever he holds sway, the institutions of freedom which call out many an unsuspected virtue and give opportunity for human greatness to manifest itself. The art of retiring gracefully may some time be learnt by the Englishman; we cannot yet credit him with great perfection therein. But whether or not we thoroughly practise it, we profess that we hold sway only for the benefit of the subject—a noble aim, to the realisation of which it is to be hoped we may more and more approximate.

Passion for
exploration,
colonisation,
and trade.

Thirst for
empire and
genius for
government.

Successes
and failures.

Richly endowed by nature with mineral wealth, England has made good use of it. Becoming middlemen in commerce, and receiving hospitably many Continental



1. SHELTLANDER.
4. DEVONSHIRE GIRL.
7. NOTTS FARMER.

2. HIGHLANDER.
5. WELSH GIRL.
8. SUSSEX YOUTH.

3. IRISH CELT.
6. LINCOLNSHIRE GIRL.
9. CORNWALL MAN.

artificers driven from their homes by tyranny, the English have been rewarded for their free grant of protection by many an industry built up, and many an invention which started new modes of work. The applications of steam and the development of railway communication, the invention of the electric telegraph, and the use of coal gas for lighting, have increased our wealth tenfold, and produced a material well-being which has known no parallel in ancient or modern times. Popular liberty has attained an expansion under a limited monarchy which has never before been enjoyed under kingly government; and this in the midst of complex and conflicting interests which have made the problems of legislation infinitely more difficult than in any former state of society. If now the danger of yielding to the demands of an uninstructed majority can be successfully battled with, we may be said to have equalled any State organisation, now or in the past.

Feudalism,—the allegiance to lords, which the Normans impressed upon us,—has been dying with the growth of large towns and of the wealth of manufacturers. Lordship is now a function of wealth, not of prowess, except so far as the acquisition and retention of wealth may be a sign of intellect. But respect only goes very partially with material wealth, and it is more and more passing to the intellectually rich,—those who can persuade, convince, teach, and govern,—whether they have pence or pounds. Long may this tendency grow; may money cease to buy servility, may time-serving become unknown, may bribery be forgotten, and may an Englishman be as intellectually free and enlightened as he is materially unfettered!

PHYSIOGNOMY OF BRITONS AND DISTINCTIONS OF DISTRICTS.

If now we turn to examine the people of the British Isles to-day, as to their physiognomy, we cannot do better than resort to foreign eyes. M. Esquiros, a most candid critic of our country, speaks thus of the typical English

female: "She is remarkable for light hair, blue eyes, coral lips, cheeks ruddy as the flower to which they are so frequently compared, a skin as white and transparent as alabaster, delicate features, arms admirably modelled, a perfect bust, and an air of flourishing health yet bearing the stamp of birth. Who cannot recognise a true Saxon woman by her walk? You distinguish in it the movement of a haughty race,

The typical
English-
woman.



WELSH GIRL IN FESTINIOG RAILWAY.

independent, mistress of itself, and all it thinks proper to subjugate." The male Saxon he characterises by his round and high-coloured face, his robust and compact build. His frame is not so developed as that of the Scotch and Irish Celts; he is stouter; but his shoulders are square and wide, his arms muscular, and his chest full.

The South-eastern counties show a type very near to the typical one. According to Dr. Beddoe, in his valuable work, "The Races of Britain," the features are regular,

head and face elliptic, the brows moderately ^{The southern counties' people.} arched, the

nose straight, often rounded or bulbous at the point, the mouth is well moulded, the complexion fair and transparent; the eyes are well opened, sometimes blue, brown; the hair is flaxen, or brown of various shades, seldom bright, curly, or abundant. Passing

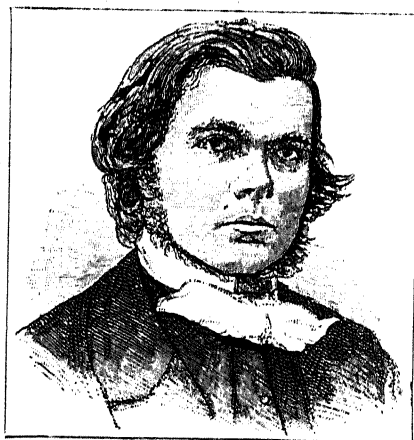
west, dark hair and high cheek-bones begin to become frequent in some parts of Wilts and Dorset. The Devonians are mostly dark-haired, with blue or grey eyes. They are medium in height and strongly made, their heads being of good size. The mildness of the climate may in part be accountable for the marked beauty of

the women, who have "a peculiar delicacy and softness of both outline and complexion."

The Cornishmen are sturdy and stalwart fishermen, miners, and agriculturists, the darkest Britons, truly Celtic to a large extent. Their average height is five feet eight inches. The cheeks are prominent, and ^{The Cornish.} many features are



WELSHMAN: CYMRIC TYPE.



WELSHMAN: IBERIAN (? MONGOLOID) TYPE.

characteristic of the bronze race. All the British types occur in Cornwall; and Dr. Beddoe describes the most characteristic as Iberian, with a dash of Semitic. Is this a testimony to the early Phœnician voyages for tin?

Passing again to the East, it appears that the East Anglian counties, though so early exposed to invasion, retain a distinct proportion of Celtic blood, probably owing to their persistence in impassable fens. Their Teutonic

East Anglians. blood is distinctly Anglian; and the Danes do not appear to have influenced even the seaboard remarkably. The complexions of the people are mostly light; faces short, oval, or oblong; jaws rather massive, and form generally bulky. The eyes are generally light grey or light brown; hair often sandy red or flaxen yellow.

Notts and Lincolnshire, on the contrary, are Anglo-Danish. In Lincolnshire and Leicestershire particularly, Danish blood is prominent. Mr. D. Mackintosh describes the Danish type as having a long face, high cheek-bones, high and long nose, and reddish hair. Leicestershire and

The Midlanders. North Cambridgeshire, however, have retained a considerable proportion of Celtic blood. The same is the case in the strictly midland and south midland counties. Derbyshire and Staffordshire people have some of the lightest hair in the country; they are largely Anglian. The preponderance of British types in the counties bordering on Wales is marked. In the Forest of Dean, says Dr. Beddoe, the peculiar institutions of the miners date back to a Roman or pre-Roman period, and the physical type of the inhabitants does not seem to have altered materially in the meanwhile. The hair is generally dark, the head long, the cheek-bones prominent. "The Severn is a distinct ethnological frontier; the contrast between the country people in the Eastgate Street of Gloucester, on a market day, and those who come across the bridge from the Forest side, is extremely striking."

It might be inferred from what we have said, that the Welsh would be a very homogeneous people, dark-haired and dark-eyed, pre-eminently Celtic; but light hair with dark eyes is a very frequent combination. **The Welsh.** Hollowness of the cheeks, and sudden sinking in

below the cheek-bones is often met with. Giraldus de Barry, writing seven centuries ago, has given a very entertaining picture of his countrymen. "Nature," he says, "has given to the Welsh of all ranks boldness of speech and confidence in answering before princes and nobles: we see that the Romans and French have the same gift of nature, but not the English nor the Germans. . . . They are inconstant, mobile; they have no respect for their oaths, for their promises, for the truth; they will give their right hands in attestation of truth, even in joke; they are always ready for perjury. They attack fiercely, with much noise; if repulsed, they flee as in terror, but as readily return to the charge. They are given to digging up boundary fences and removing landmarks; they are continually having lawsuits about land. They are abstinent in need and temperate by habit, but will gorge themselves at another's expense: no one wastes his own substance out of gluttony, as the English do; but they are ostentatious in vicing with others." Among other qualities, he notes their fondness for music, especially part-singing. They could sing in three parts, while the Northumbrians (including Yorkshiremen) sang in two, the rest of the English only in one. They were revengeful, proud of race and family, fond of genealogies. No doubt the Welsh include two types at least, perhaps combining all the pre-Saxon races within them.

Giraldus de
Barry on the
Welsh
character.

Coming now to Northumbria, "In few parts of Britain," says Dr. Beddoe, "does there exist a more clearly-marked moral type than in Yorkshire. . . . The character is essentially Teutonic, including the shrewdness, the truthfulness without candour, the perseverance, energy, and industry of the Lowland Scotch, but little of their frugality or of the theological instinct common to the Welsh and the Scotch, or of the imaginative genius or the more brilliant qualities which sometimes light up the Scottish character. The sound judgment, the spirit of fair play, the love of comfort, order, and cleanliness, and the fondness for heavy feeding, are shared with the Saxon Englishman; but some of them

The
Yorkshire
character.



HIGHLAND CHIEFTAIN.

are still more strongly marked in the Yorkshireman, as is also the bluff independence." Their aptitude in music we have already referred to. Their taste for horseflesh may have been derived from the Northmen. In vigour of mind, energy for industrial pursuits, and zeal in science, the Yorkshiremen hold a foremost place. The North and East Ridings have a considerable Danish intermixture with the Anglian type. In Whitby, where Captain Cook was born, Scandinavian features are often met with.

Prof. Phillips describes the principal Yorkshire type as tall (five feet nine inches average), large-boned, muscular (averaging 164 lbs. in weight), the face long and angular, the complexion fair, eyes blue or grey; hair, light brown or reddish. In many of the valleys, small, round-faced, brown, dark-haired men, with dark eyes, are to be met with, perhaps ancient Celtic or Iberian.

South Lancashire is now a sort of aggregation from the whole of the British Isles. North Lancashire, Cumberland, and Westmoreland show a markedly Scan- ^{The} dinavian type, having been largely colonised ^{Cumbrians.} from the Isle of Man, North Ireland, and the Hebrides, by Norsemen, in the tenth and eleventh centuries. The people in general have a straight profile and long, straight nose, fair hair, and grey eyes; though Celts with prominent eyes and nose are not uncommon. Northumberland and Durham are chiefly Anglian, with a strong dash of Danish.

LOWLAND SCOTLAND.

The south-east of Scotland, including the Lothians and Tweeddale, is occupied by a fair-haired Anglian and Anglo-Danish people, tall and muscular, mostly long-headed, with blue or light grey eyes; hair light red, yellow, or brown, but rarely dark. The profile is nearly straight, the chin and lower jaw broad and rounded, the nose nearly straight. With the Lowland Scotch we must group a band of coast country, extending round the friths of Forth and Tay and to Nairn. In Dumfriesshire the Norse blood is more prominent; and further west, in Ayr and Galloway, the Celtic race is in possession, so

that Dr. Beddoe even speaks of the Welshman of Upper Galloway. In some parts their height is remarkable; in one village, Balmaclellan, the people average five feet ten and a half inches without shoes. The hair is dark, often black, with blue or grey eyes. Wigtonshire includes people of Pictish descent. It is singular to note that Tweeddale has produced so many fine ballads; some attribute this to the Danish element in the people; while East Lowlanders have been distinguished by the fervency of their religious convictions.

THE HIGHLANDS AND ISLANDS.

The true Highlanders present a marked contrast to the Lowlanders. The typical Gaelic-speaking people are described by Mr. Hector Maclean as quick in temper and very emotional, seldom speaking without being influenced by one feeling or another; more quick than accurate in observation; clear thinkers, but wanting in deliberation; having a fertile and vivid imagination; loving the absolute in thought and principle; disliking expediency and doubt; patriotic, chivalrous, and sympathetic with the weak; disposed to a sentimental melancholy, yet hopeful and sanguine, often witty and eloquent.

The Highlander is typically long-headed and long-faced; presenting many varieties from fair to swarthy, the eyes are generally light, the lips are usually full and thick, the lower jaw often very straight, chin seldom round, the nose is frequently large and prominent, eyebrows and cheek-bones large and prominent; hair reddish yellow and brown. The Highlanders' march is very elastic and springing, the heel being well raised and the knee well bent.

Interspersed with these long-headed Celts, are many short and round-headed people, with dark skin and complexion; hair black, coarse, and shaggy; eyes black or dark, and fiery; receding forehead, and lower part of face prominent. Mr. Maclean describes them as showing warmth of feeling, fierce temper when

roused, and considerable cunning; they are fond of money, accumulating even when very poor, diligent and industrious when gain is certain, otherwise indolent.

Yet another short-headed type of Celt is very noticeable. These have broad and rather square heads, straight profile, lower jaw narrow, forehead broad and square; swarthy complexion, hair reddish-brown to black; eyes far in, often small, dark-brown, grey, or black. They show great circumspection and forethought, and have strong passions, mostly under control. They are strongly attached to friends and relations; very clannish, with strong national pride. They are usually very economical and prudent; fervent, gloomy, brooding, strong thinkers, not very imaginative, but with a characteristic vein of humour.

Other Highlanders appear to represent dark Iberians, or large-boned harsh-featured Caledonians; but they are outnumbered by those who exhibit a decided Scandinavian type. They are tall, long-armed, straight-faced, with more arched brows and forehead than the Celts; face square or tapering to the chin, lower jaw *Scandinavian* strongly arched; eyes blue or bluish grey; hair *types*. flaxen or sandy. They have strong digestive organs, and eat and drink largely. They are described as "deliberative and cool; doubts numerous, and convictions few." They are very accurate observers, being never biassed in their observations by emotion or prejudice. They have a powerful local memory, which gives the intellectual portion of the race a talent for geometry, astronomy, and navigation. They are strong in attachment, but not so ready to repent or forgive as the Celts. Extremely fond of independence, they will encounter the greatest hardships to secure it. They are often rather rough and dogmatic, "fond of the vast and grand, but rather disposed to turn the marvellous and mysterious into ridicule; possessed of a genial vein of humour, which hardly ever forsakes them in danger or suffering,—with immense firmness and self-reliance, which neither torture nor death can shake."

The Shetlanders and Orcadians are very largely Nor-

wegian. Eastern Caithness is inhabited by a very pure Norse race. In the outer Hebrides a Norwegian type prevails, but mixed with it is a short, thick-set race, snub-nosed and dark-haired, which may be aboriginal, and, of course, the Highland type also. The southern Hebrides include more Highlanders, with many Norse also.



DISTRESSED IRISH PEASANTRY.

THE IRISH PEOPLE.

The Irish people, though of mixed origin, have come out the most homogeneous of the peoples of the British islands. "Throughout the greater part of Ireland," says Dr. Beddoe, "one distinct type of man decidedly predominates." There is an admixture of Scotch and English



IRISH PEAT-GATHERER.

in parts of Ulster and other districts; but the prevailing type is a mixed Celtic one, with, on the coasts and islands,

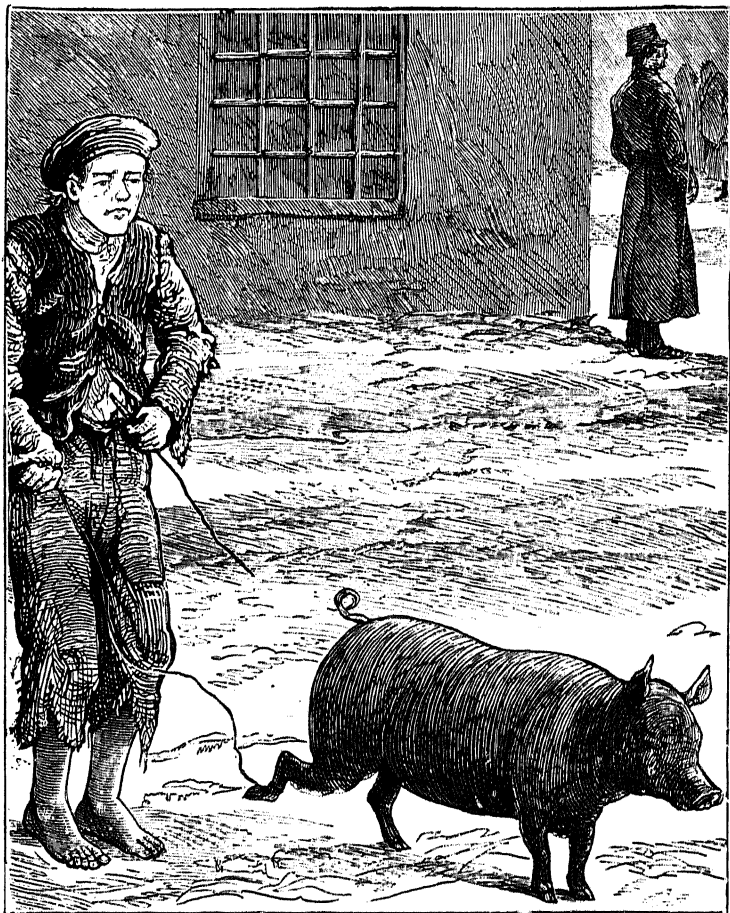


IRISH PEASANT GIRL.

some Norse blood. The average height is five feet seven. In the West the population becomes darker haired than in any region of Great Britain; in fact, it resembles that of the Auvergne, Savoy, and Northern Italy. Light eyes, however, greatly preponderate. The head is long, low, and narrow. The eye-brows are level, the orbits low and deep. Thus, in racial type, the Irish are very much allied with the true Highland Scotch. Dr. Beddoe has found that the Irish upper class have

darker eyes, but much lighter hair than the lower classes; this is due to the large infusion of English blood in the

Irish landed proprietors and professional classes. Mixed with these occur some shorter, darker people, who may



GOING TO MARKET.

be of Iberian race; and others even have a Mongolian or Turanian aspect, and are conjectured to be of servile origin, perhaps dating back to pre-Celtic ancestors.

South-east Wexford includes people of English race, said to have descended from settlers from South Pembrokeshire, which itself is more Anglo-Flemish than Welsh. In Kilkenny and South Tipperary there are many persons of English descent, not of recent date. Wexford and Waterford have many tall fair people, apparently Norwegian by descent, and still retaining considerable traces of their ancestry in their fierceness when roused. The same type occurs about Cork and Limerick. It is interesting to find so much of the fierceness which sometimes crops up in Ireland traceable to the Norse element, rather than the Celtic; the Norse being themselves a branch of the Teutons, of whom the English or Anglo-Saxons are another branch.

In extensive districts of Ulster the majority of the people are of English or Scotch descent, settled there under James I. and Charles I.; but Donegal and other parts are predominantly Irish.

In West Kerry, we are the prevailing type greatly resembles that of the Scotch Western Highlands, the men are tall, many of them nearly six feet, with square, not broad, shoulders, long heads, prominent square brows, flat broad forehead, somewhat receding. Their abundant wavy hair, reddish, dark-brown, or black, grows low on the forehead. The nose is mostly long and pointed, with the long narrow Gaelic nostril. A considerable number of these fair people have projecting jaws. Their eyes are of various shades of grey. The cheek-bones are rather broad, the mouth coarse, the lips thick, and teeth good.

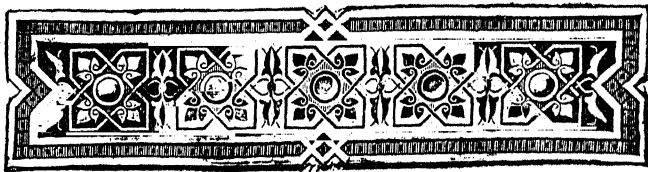
Altogether, Dr. Beddoe concludes that the proportion of English and Scotch blood in the present inhabitants of Ireland is, probably, not much less than a third. He is also of opinion that the Gaelic and Iberian races of the West, mostly dark-haired, are tending to swamp the blond Teutons of England by a reflux migration.

It may be well to review a few important characteristics of the British people, in order that we may the better contrast our own race with others. Prevalent throughout

both our work and our recreation we find seriousness and industry. Our play for the most part has a serious aspect. The object is not to pass the time, but to achieve something, to gain some new impression, most usually an impression of activity. A great love of nature and the open air mingles with this. Our athletic sports, shooting and hunting, cycling, cricket, football, lawn tennis, and croquet, testify to this. Enterprise gains the field even here, and elsewhere rules: a conservative enterprise truly, one which does not risk everything on any hazard unless it be unavoidable. Thus the English are often slower in starting on an undertaking, but more solid in building, less visionary and theoretical than other nations.

The British races perhaps taste the higher imaginative pleasures less than others. They are not romantic, passionate, imaginative, like the Romance nations. They are not filled with idealism in love-making, or chivalry in friendship. Even their self-assertiveness, more marked in the Celtic Briton, is limited by reticence and coldness, and it leads sometimes to arrogance.

Hence it cannot be said that the English are overcrowded with characteristics which bespeak them the hearty reception of foreigners. The truth and solidity, the freedom and enlightenment which Englishmen boast, are their best credentials. They will bear still greater development, and may with advantage be combined with more "sweetness," to use Mr. Matthew Arnold's word, more courtesy, a less overbearing attitude, more consideration for other people's feelings, less jealousy of other people's success. In fact, in the cultivation of more brotherliness and sympathy is to be sought the best line of advance both for our own and other nations.



CHAPTER IV.

France in the Past.

The river-valley and cave men—The Iberians and Basques—The Aryan advance—The Celts and Belgæ—Greek and Roman colonists—Cæsar's account—Effects of Roman colonisation—Description of the Gauls—The Teutons—The Saxons and Visigoths—The Vandals and Franks—Clovis—The German element in Frenchmen—The Saracens and Charles Martel—The Franks under Charlemagne—France since Charlemagne—Separation from the Germans—The Norman invasion and its results—Greatness of the Normans—Feudalism and the Crusades—Religious persecutions and wars—Foreign wars—Modern revolutions—Self-government and independence.



IN France, as in England, an old race lived in the river-valleys, and has left its implements in the gravel at Abbeville, Amiens, and near Toulouse. The cave

The river-valley and cave men.

men likewise followed them in time, and surpassed them in several particulars, leaving abundant remains in the caves of Central France. In the later caves of La Madelaine, in the Dordogne, bone needles and harpoon-heads,

flint saws, scrapers, and borers are numerous, as well as drawings upon antlers, ivory, and bones. In one of these a large ox is shown feeding, with a naked man behind, who has apparently approached stealthily, and is in the act of throwing a spear. Another represents a mammoth on a portion of its own tusk, and shows the long mane,



SUADIAN PEASANT WOMAN.
129

society, income, so long as tobacco is not denied him. It is to be acknowledged that German professors **Study of England and its history.** have told us many things about our own history and literature of which we were ignorant, and have shamed us by their enthusiasm for men and things which we were accustomed to regard coolly as simple items in our appanage of greatness.

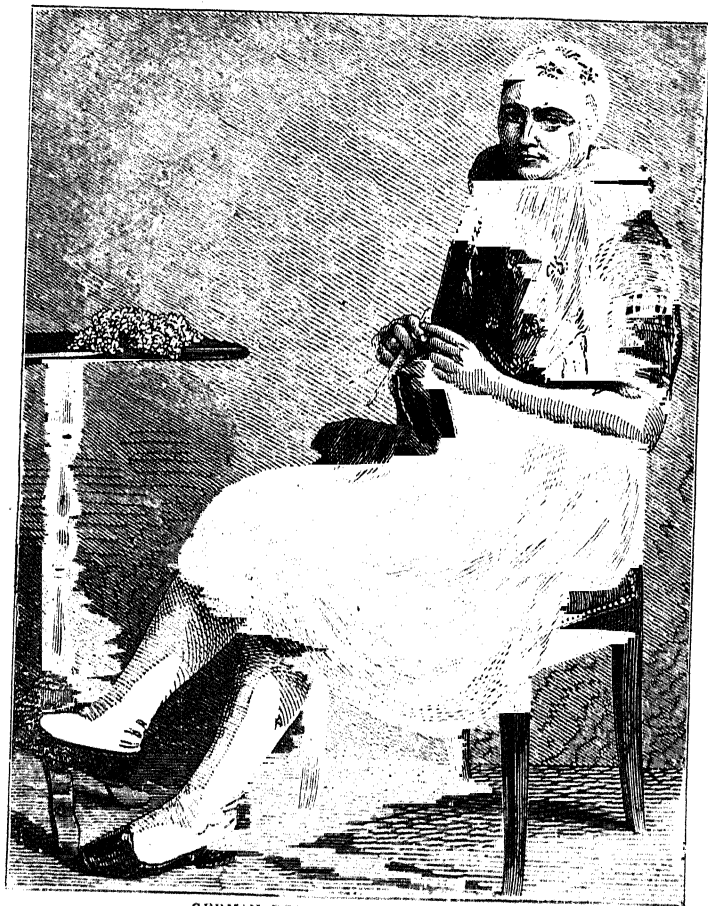
But the German lieutenant—he has been endowed by our imagination,—set on fire by the rapid and almost theatrical march of events in the Austro-Prussian and **The German soldier.** the Franco-German wars,—with almost super-human qualities of foresight, knowledge, resource, and courage. It is true that he has been well educated for his war business, that he knows geography, military tactics, and languages, in a way very unlike that

Education and drill. of a drawing-room warrior, and makes his profession his practice, his life. He has simply gone into military matters with the same energy which our professional man or manufacturer devotes to his business. He has practised what he professed; there were many like him to take his place if he fell, and the system has succeeded. But at what an enormous cost!

Germany groans under the terrible burden of her military system which takes the majority of healthy youths at the time of most vigorous manhood, when aptitudes are acquired and when they could best add to the **Burden of the military system.** wealth of the nation, and converts them into war-machines. The military men and the professors include between them the best available talent of the country, while only the surplus is left for manufactures and agriculture.

We are apt to associate a phlegmatic temperament, a stolid demeanour, with the German race; but this does **The German temperament.** them scant justice. They may be stolid, absorbed in absorbing their tobacco till roused by something more exciting. But they can become as excited, as vivacious, as eager as Frenchmen, though without their suppleness of movement, their **Duelling.** fertility of gesticulation. The student has a very regrettable tendency to fight duels on the smallest

provocation. Fortunately his weapon is not the pistol, and his sword, guarded by a large basket hilt, although it confers many scars, and often deprives the duellist of



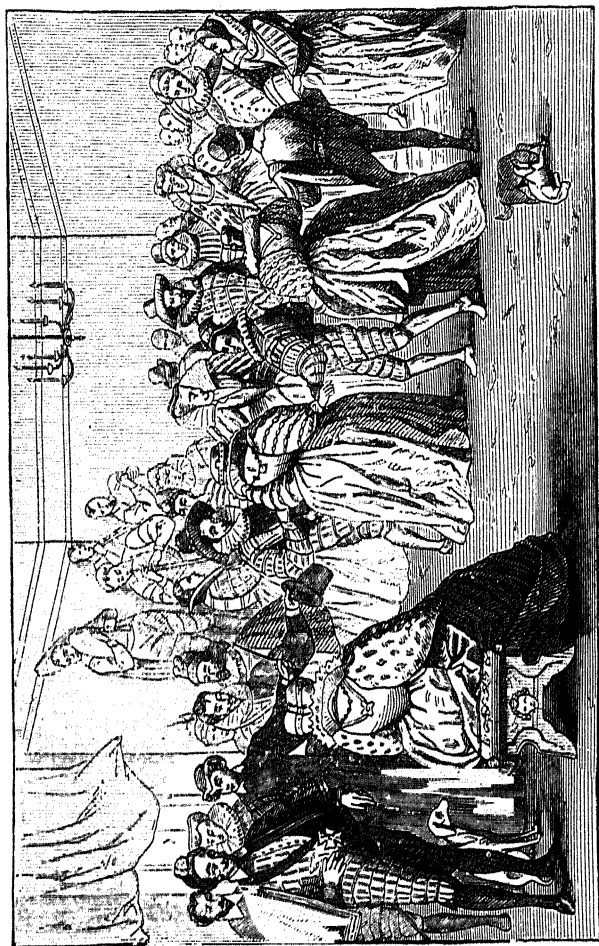
GERMAN PEASANT OF OLDENBURG.

a portion of nose or ear, seldom causes death, for pads protect the throat, right arm, and the whole left side of the body to the knee.



POMERANIAN PEASANTS.

ever known to have been possessed by it until the frozen carcasses were exhumed in Siberia and proved the accu-



ENTERTAINMENT AT THE COURT OF HENRY III. OF FRANCE.

racy of the drawing. Thus we have absolute evidence that men existed and could draw when the mammoth still roamed in Europe. Reindeer were among the most abun-

dant prey of the old Cave-men. The few human bones yet found in this age in France represent a long-headed race, with the thigh-bone strongly ridged, the shin-bone flattened, jaws projecting forwards and thicker than the normal.

The Neolithic, or polished stone people, with their advanced art, probably lived in France during the culmination of the Assyrian and Egyptian empires, and even after. Some of these smaller round-headed people appear to be identical with the ancient Iberians, and **The Iberians and Basques.** their modified descendants the Basques, who are still found in South-east France, in Lower Navarre, Labourd, and Soule, but do not number more than about one hundred thousand. Every district has peculiarities in its dialect; but we will deal more fully with the race and language when we speak of Spain.

THE ARYAN ADVANCE.

The decline of the stone and bone-using people was probably brought about by the advance of the bronze-users, who seem to have come from Asia; and they probably arrived in France by two routes, a northern and a southern. These were the Aryans in various divisions. The Celts are the earliest in historic order, and no doubt

The Celts and Belgæ. they once possessed most of what we now know as Gaul. They belonged to the Cymric division, like the Welsh and Cornish; but a large portion of them were a distinct group, known as Belgæ, whom Cæsar has vividly described for us, occupying the country between the Seine and the Rhine, and probably intermixed with some Teutonic blood. The Belgæ were blue-eyed, taller and lighter-haired than the Cymric division, who were short and swarthy and short-headed, and ranged over the whole country from the Seine to the Garonne.

Already in the second century B.C. the Gauls were being attacked both in the North and in the South. The Germans had crossed the north-eastern frontier, and the Greek colonists had long made good their footing at Massilia (Marseilles). A **Greek and Roman colonists.** Roman settlement was established in the South by Caius

Sextius in B.C. 122, which he called *Aquæ Sextiæ*, now Aix in Provence. From this town Roman influence spread in the Rhone district, and a Roman province, termed *Gallia Braccata*, was established, with Narbo (Narbonne) for its capital.

In B.C. 58, Julius Cæsar found the Gallic population in a semi-barbarous condition, grouped in numerous tribes, each having little or no connection with the rest. They lived in unfortified villages of round huts, and only rarely fortified a commanding situation with earth-works, or protected themselves within forests or marshes. Each tribe had its chief, who was elected, one or more Druidic priests, and a sort of aristocracy of horsemen, to whom the rest of the population rendered service. Cæsar found these divided peoples an easy prey, and in less than ten years had conquered them in detail, driven out the Germans, and forced the Helvetians back into Switzerland. Another blow to the Gauls was the attack upon Britain, which deprived the Gauls of help from beyond the sea.

Cæsar's conquest undoubtedly had much influence on Gaul. The people, originally devoid of cohesion, were absorbed into his armies, learnt discipline, gained civilisation. The common people were less oppressed, slavery was diminished, human sacrifices were stopped, and the oppressions of the Druids were diminished. Successive Roman rulers vied with one another in the interest they took in Gaul. Lugdunum (Lyons) became the capital, and four great roads radiating from it aided powerfully in diffusing civilisation. Before the end of the second century A.D., Christianity had entered the South, and a bishopric of Lyons was founded. By the middle of the fourth century the new religion had spread into every part of Gaul.

A graphic description of the Gauls in the fourth century is given by Ammianus Marcellinus in his *Roman History*. 'The Gauls are almost all tall of stature, very fair, and red-haired, and horrible from the fierceness of their eyes, fond of strife, and haughtily insolent. A whole band of strangers would not endure one of them,

aided in his brawl by his powerful and blue-eyed wife; especially when, with swollen neck and gnashing teeth, poisoning her huge white arms, she begins, joining kicks to blows, to put forth her fists like stones from twisted strings of a catapult. Most of their voices are terrific and threatening, as well when they are quiet as when they are angry. . . . They are, as a nation, very fond of wine, and invent many drinks resembling it; and some of the poorer sort wander about with their senses quite blunted by continued intoxication."

THE TEUTONS.

But while Christianity was redeeming the Gauls, more powerful invading enemies were attacking them, and in the end subjugated or drove back the old inhabitants.

The Saxons
and
Visigoths.

The invaders were Teutons of various divisions. The Saxons began to invade Picardy and Normandy by sea as early as the fourth century, and they steadily advanced round the coast to the Loire. Later, land invasions rapidly increased. The Visigoths of Central Europe settled partly in Southern France. The tall Burgundian Vandals from the Vistula occupied

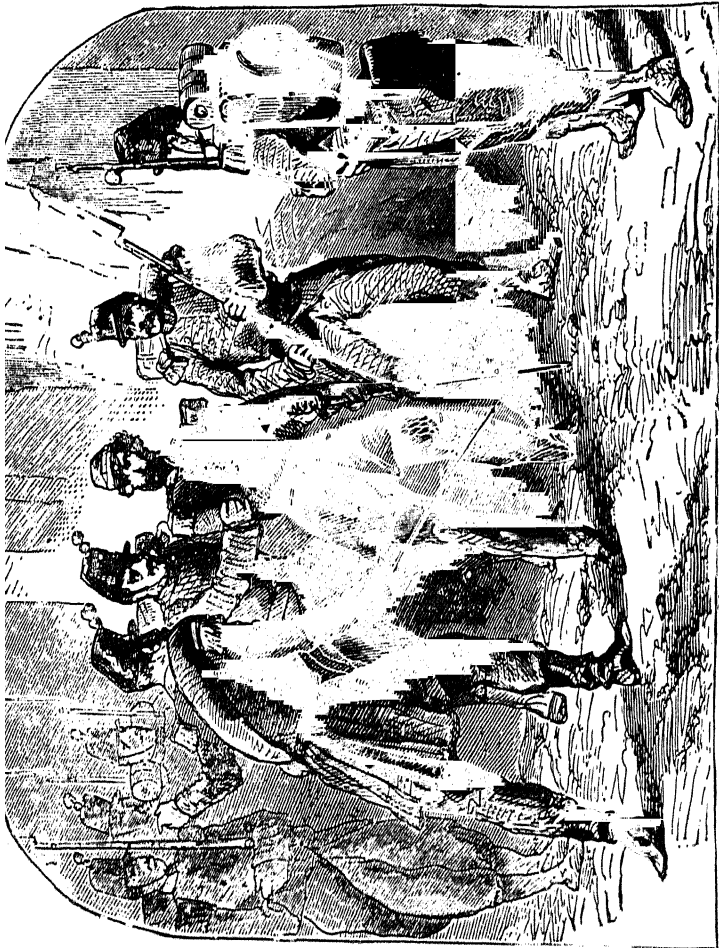
The Vandals
and Franks.

the region which still bears their name. The Franks, a still more numerous aggregation of German tribes, invaded Gaul in the middle of the fifth century, and, turning their arms impartially against Romans, Gauls, Burgundians, and Visigoths, conquered them all, and won, though as yet none knew it, the right to name their newly-found country in its widest extent. Successive immigrations for centuries continued to strengthen the German element in Gaul. But Christianity, which had subjugated the Roman Empire, was able to master also this new element, and, gaining Clovis, the Frankish chieftain, proceeded to put its potent governing powers at the disposal of the new masters of France.

Thus we must recognise that the distinctive Frenchman of modern times is very much of a German in his origin. He is the result of a similar process to that which he is now so much con-

The German
element in
Frenchmen.

cerned to stay or roll back—German pressure westwards. But of course he is well advised in regarding peaceful



THE LINE IN 1831.

immigration as one thing, national mastery as another; and he also cannot annihilate the Celtic, the Gaulish, the Italian, the Iberian elements in his composition. Nor can

we fail to acknowledge that, however closely he may be allied in origin on one side to the Germans, the other elements in his blood, and the diverse conditions under which he has lived for centuries, have made the Frenchman a distinctive type, markedly different from the modern German.

The South of France was least affected by the Saxon and German invasions. It received, however, its own special contingents from abroad. The Saracens for centuries extended their inroads into and largely held sway in the South-east; and their onward advance was only checked by the decisive victory of Charles Martel (Duke of the Franks, and grandfather of Charlemagne) in 732, at Poitiers. His son, Pepin, the first of the Carolingian kings of the Franks, further defeated the Saracens in 758, and drove them out of Narbonne.

In the time of Charlemagne France was parcelled out among a number of great lords, exercising almost despotic rule in their respective districts. Bishops and abbots were rising to a condition very much on a level with the nobles. Commerce was at a very low ebb. Those Franks who were reckoned free, bowed very humbly before the lords; the original inhabitants,—Gauls, Gallo-Romans, Celts,—were in a condition bordering on slavery; while slaves,—said to have formed no less than nine-tenths of the people,—were in abject misery. The South of France, under one of Charlemagne's sons, formed a separate kingdom of Aquitaine, in which Roman laws and Roman culture had far more influence than in the North.

We cannot follow the multitudinous changes which came to France in the ensuing ages. First came the separation of the German Franks from the Gallic Franks. The Imperial Crown remained with the Germans; feudalism slowly developed in France.

Later, in the ninth century, came the Northmen, or Normans, from Scandinavia, and gained possession of some of the fairest provinces of France. This was another

Teutonic invasion, and powerfully influenced France, though in turn the Normans became leavened with Celtic and Gaulish and Frankish influences. The Norman invasion and its results. "Without laying aside," Macaulay says, "that dauntless valour which had been the terror of every land, from the Elbe to the Pyrenees, the Normans rapidly acquired all, and more than all, the knowledge and refinement which they found in the country where they settled. . . . They embraced Christianity; and with Christianity they learned a great part of what the clergy had to teach. They abandoned their native speech, and adopted the French tongue, in which the Latin was the predominant element. They speedily raised their new language to a dignity and importance which Greatness of the Normans. it had never before possessed. They found it a barbarous jargon; they fixed it in writing, and they employed it in legislation, in poetry, and in romance. They renounced that brutal intemperance to which all the other branches of the great German family were too much inclined. . . . Every country, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Dead Sea, witnessed the prodigies of their discipline and valour. One Norman knight, at the head of a handful of warriors, scattered the Celts of Connaught. Another founded the monarchy of the Two Sicilies, and saw the Emperors both of the East and of the West fly before his arms. A third, the Ulysses of the first Crusade, was invested by his fellow-soldiers with the sovereignty of Antioch; and a fourth, the Tancred whose name lives in the great poem of Tasso, was celebrated throughout Christendom as the bravest and most generous of the champions of the Holy Sepulchre."

The Feudal period in France was one of infinite vicissitude, during which princes and dukes of various districts, and of varied degrees of independence, struggled for their own hand. The Church more and more asserted an absolute control over the wills and fortunes of men. The Crusades, which the Church alone Feudalism and the Crusades. could have brought about, took many of the best men in France abroad, and gave them an experience and a culture which gave rise to the age of chivalry, when refinement

(to a certain extent) flourished in the palace and castle, while it was not considered to have any reference to the suffering poor. But in this period an interest in intellectual study gave rise to the University of Paris.

Intellectual life flourished in the South; and, as if the Crusades had not satisfied the dominant priests and the overbearing Frankish leaders, successive religious persecutions within their own borders and wars. desolated France. Now it was the Albigenses, now the Vaudois, now the Huguenots who bore the brunt of persecution. Meanwhile, the warlike temperament of the French found vent in numerous other wars against

Foreign wars. neighbours—against the English, against Germans, against Spain, Italy—indeed, against every bordering power in turn, or several combined; and the French have continually been smiled upon by victory until the downfall of the first and the third Napoleons. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the English were gradually expelled from France. But France was left desolate and exhausted; wolves and robbers dominated its most fertile regions; and it required a long period of quiet toil and growth to repair the damage. Burgundy was then mastered, and Louis XI. reigned absolute, and the feudal system was to a large extent dead.

Now began Italian expeditions, which, with varying successes, led ultimately to no good results. German wars, then civil wars, followed, and finally we come to the period of Louis XIV., when France was enlarged, triumphant, but the people wretched and downtrodden.

Modern times have changed this. The life-and-death throes of a people exploding with rage against long-endured tyrannies of royalty and aristocracy were followed by wars of conquest which threatened to subdue Europe, until England finally compelled French ambition to be restrained within limits, but unfortunately at the same time restored a dynasty too deeply steeped in traditions of an evil past to be permanently endurable. Repeated revolutions have at length left the people free to govern themselves.



CHAPTER V.

The Modern French.

Cornwall and Brittany—The Breton character—Superstitions—A typical Breton cottage—Breton attachment to home—Traces of the old Celts—Physical characteristics of the French—The French at home—Domestic habits—Frugality—Peculiarities of food—Déjeuner à la fourchette—Tea versus coffee—Dinner—Meals of the peasantry—Fast days—Virtues of the peasantry—His investments in Government stock—Gradual changes in the rural districts—Superstitious customs—The rural priest—Small families—Lack of enterprise and colonising force—French great cities—Gaiety of Paris—The Parisian boulevard—Suites of apartments—Living at restaurants—Skillful arrangement of spectacles—Public exhibitions—Good markets—Schools and colleges—Literary men and editors—Originality of thought and constructive genius—French manufactures—Open-air social life—French politeness.



MIXED in origin, and long cultured, the French have a strength and influence depending upon both their complex origin and the long period since arts and letters were introduced among them. Besides the Basques, however, the Celts still maintain a very distinct personality, occupying Brittany very extensively, many with brunette complexions and

Cornwall
and
Brittany.

black eyes, and being zealous Roman Catholics. It is

remarkable how many analogies and likenesses there are between Cornwall and Brittany, alike western peninsulas



CN BOULOGNE PIER.

with rocky coasts, and inhabited largely by people of Celtic descent. The similarity of the people has been



SCENE IN BOULOGNE MARKET.

kept up by repeated migrations from Cornwall to Brittany, which seems actually to have derived its name from this communication with Britain. The Armorican (or Brezonak) tongue is still spoken in several dialectic



NORMANDY PEASANTS.

forms; but it does not appear to have much chance of surviving long in literature. It is being rapidly supplanted by French, as indeed it must be, for lack of school use and power of growth with the times.

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The Breton, unlike the lively Irishman, appears dull by the side of the sparkling Frenchman. Withal he is bigoted in religion, and conservative in politics, royalist in sentiment and attachment. As in Cornwall, **The Breton character.** ritches, charms, and fairies are still believed in; and past history is spoken of by many a cromlech and by great stone circles and other monuments. Dairy farms abound; bees are largely kept. On the sea-coast fishing is a staple industry, the sardine being caught in immense quantities; and wrecking was a recognised pursuit in times not long gone by. Many of the houses are built as they used to be in Cornwall, with an upper room projecting on pillars over a sort of open porch. Prints of the devil's foot in the rocks are still shown, and the art of the priest has converted the sacred menhirs into places of Christian veneration by **Superstitions.** the simple device of planting a cross upon them. It is not so long, indeed, since gifts and sacrifices were offered to deities associated with the flat-topped dolmens or cromlechs, and corners of the farms were left vacant for the use of the devil, in order to bribe him to do no injury to the remainder.

A typical, one-roomed Breton cottage is described as containing, fixed against the wall by the fireplace, an old oak bedstead, enclosed by sliding panels, and **A typical Breton cottage.** rising so high that a great chest, containing the family wardrobe, is used to climb into it, as well as to sit upon. Often the large cupboards on either side of the chimney have such capacious shelves that they are used as beds for the children. A polished table,—often with hollows scooped out to hold soup,—and forms complete the simple furniture. "Over the table," says Mrs. Bury Palliser ("Brittany and its By-ways"), suspended by pulleys, are two indispensable articles in a Breton dwelling—a large, circular basket to cover the head, and a kind of wooden frame or rack, round which the spoons are ranged. Forks they do not use. Festoons of sausages, with hams, bacon, candles, skins of lard, tions, horse-shoes, harness, all hang suspended from the ceiling, which consists of fagots of hazel suspended by

cross-poles. The floor is of beaten earth. One narrow window admits the light, and there are no outhouses." A manure-heap, as is too often the case in Cornwall, is close by the house door, which, standing open, allows the free entrance of the pigs and the poultry.

The Breton is noted for his love of country and of home, his resignation, his clannishness, and his hospitality. Drink overcomes him, greed for money is one of his besetting sins, and women are contemptuously treated by him. "The Breton not only loves the village where

**Breton
attachment
to home.**

he was born, but he loves the field of his fathers, the hearth and the clock of his home, even the bed on which he was born, and on which he hopes to close his eyes. The conscript and sailor are often known to die of grief when away from their native land." Hasty, violent, even ferocious when roused, the Breton, it must be allowed, possesses many of the conspicuous virtues of the Celt.

Although Brittany is the only quarter of France where the population is predominantly Celtic, it must never be forgotten that the old Celtic races form a large part of the substratum of the French people generally.

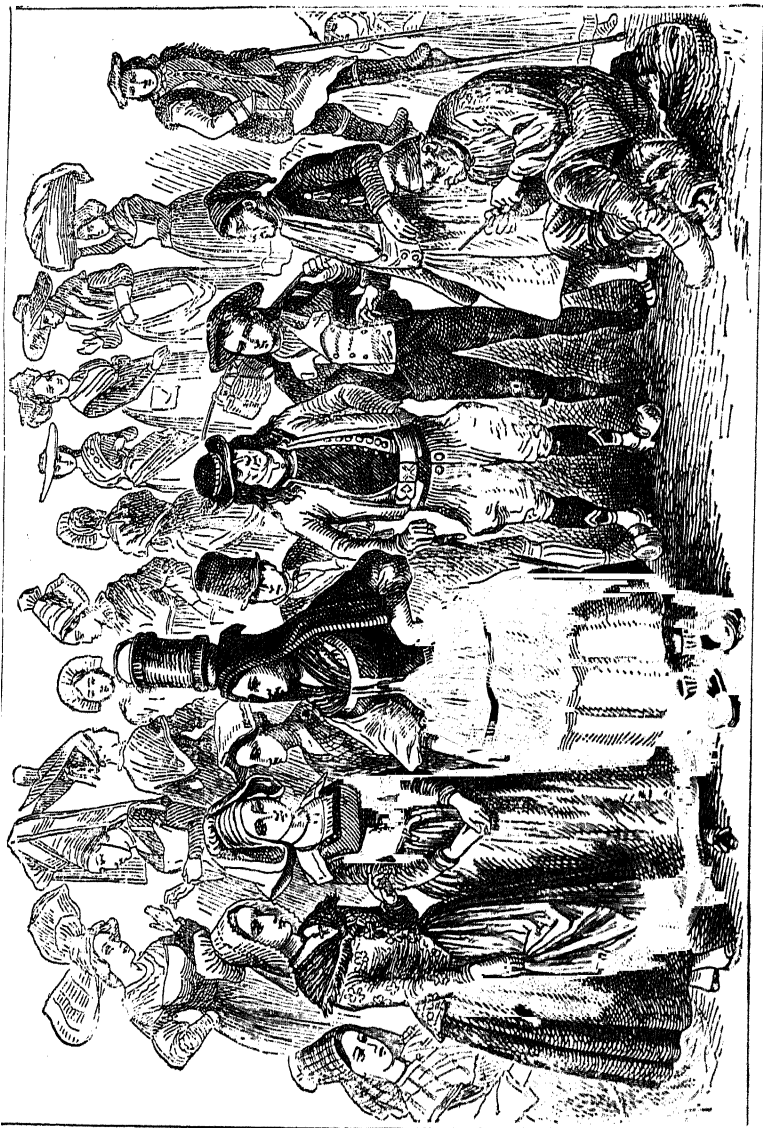
**Traces of the
Celts.**

Thus we may note, as Celtic points in the French character, vivacity, imaginativeness, keen regard for "honour," quickness to take offence, liking for military glory, bravery to the point of rashness, and, last but not least important, especially to his neighbours, a sort of uncertain temper, which makes it difficult to predict his behaviour in any given circumstances.

Physically, the French are not a tall people; yet among them many tall people are to be found. In fact, a taller race may be made out in the North, with light hair and eyes, and oval heads; while the southern people are shorter, with dark hair and eyes, and rounder heads. Still there is a great deal

**Physical
character-
istics of the
French.**

of intermixture of these types. As to beauty, the popular ideal must be dispelled, if it still remains. Every Frenchwoman is not beautiful; every Frenchman does not wear a moustache and no beard. There is a very prevalent commonness, not to say coarseness, of



FRENCH PEASANTY.

features among the women, which is prevented from becoming so apparent as a similar state of things would become in England by the skill in dress, taste in colour, and neatness which distinguish them. Among the men good looks are, we think, more conspicuous than among the women; and the expression of the eyes is more intelligent than in the case of the women. As great varieties in the wearing of moustache and whiskers are to be found as in any country.

THE FRENCH AT HOME.

The domestic habits of the people vary largely with their principal occupations, and still more largely with the difference between town and country. But the pre-dominant note of the habits of the vast mass of the people is frugality. Everything is based upon it. Scarcely any one is without some means, some slight income or wages; almost every one contrives to make it sufficient. To many English people the idea connected with "French dishes" is daintiness and expensiveness, although the masses suppose that the French eat everything, including many articles that the English loathe. The latter idea is true almost without exception, though it is a revelation to many that a great number of French people will not taste mutton, gooseberries, or rhubarb. But it is true that the French add to their food supply a very varied assortment of articles we neglect or despise. No one with any knowledge of what is nutritious can deny that frogs supply very edible morsels, almost as delicate food as chicken, that snails, well fed, are at least as nutritious as whelks, or allege that dandelion is to be despised because of its rich juice; while, if blood is "the life," which nourishes all other parts, it must be at least as nutritious as the rest, and thus justify the French peasantry in the large use they make of it. Water-chestnuts contain farinaceous food, but not enough to make the English peasant search for them; but, like water-rats, they are certainly abundant, and Frenchmen are found who eat both with gusto, to say nothing of wild cats,

owls, foxes, and hawks. And this varied taste has by no means proved a disadvantage to the French. It is a capital thing in times of siege to be able to eat, with relish, horse, dog, cat, rat—though some of us would think it a fitting preparation for the last resort of eating leather.

French eating customs are so different from our own that a word must be devoted to them. The substantial English breakfast at seven, eight, or nine a.m., is unknown to them. At the utmost, a cup of coffee and a biscuit or a roll, or a glass of thin wine, is taken at that hour; and frequently a couple of hours' work may have been done before even this is indulged in. The most important meal of the day, except with wealthy townspeople, is the *déjeuner à la fourchette*, or midday breakfast, sometimes eaten as early as eleven, especially when the family rise at six or seven; and sometimes, in towns, deferred till one or even two o'clock. But it must not be assumed that the variety of dishes met with in visiting French hotels, appears in their private life. At *déjeuner* few but substantial dishes appear, special points being, that meats are served in separate courses from vegetables, and that they are never brought to table in the crude form of the English middle-class cold joints. Vegetables, too, are served with sauce. Cold salad in great variety, and raw or preserved fruits, are largely eaten. Melons are eaten at the beginning of a meal, with pepper and salt. Weak wine, red or white is the staple drink at this meal, as at dinner. Tea is almost unknown. Even in Paris a very common-place tea is eight shillings a pound; a guinea may still be given for really good tea; and it is distressingly impossible to persuade unsophisticated natives to put the required number of teaspoonfuls in the pot. Coffee is the staple drink of the nerve-stimulant class, and it is plentifully mixed with chicory, besides being highly roasted. Hence "French coffee" is by no means Turkish coffee, and we beg leave to deprecate its introduction into England. Under its unsatisfying influences the English are flying more and more to tea, while coffee

*Déjeuner
à la
fourchette.*

*Tea versus
coffee.*

is increasingly the special drink of the French, other than light wine and, unfortunately, strong spirit; but



PARISIAN LADY.

in this last case the Englishman can throw no stones, for his own glass house is too tempting a subject of retort.

The French *dîner* at five, six, seven, or eight o'clock, is, it cannot be denied, too much of a repetition of the midday meal, and is not very distinguishable from it in the larger towns, except by the fact that no work has to be done afterwards. In the smaller towns and the country it is even a much lighter meal than the *déjeuner*, and may consist of only soup and salad, or an omelette.

Dinner.

The peasant's meals, governed even more exclusively by the all-powerful economic instinct than those of the middle-class, or *bourgeoisie*, are plain beyond conception. Cookery is not the peasant woman's *forte*; she is generally a worker in the fields, or at some occupation which leaves little time for cookery. In the morning, says Mr. Hamerton, in his delightful book, "Round my House," the men eat soup. "For twelve people, two handfuls of dry beans or peas, or a few potatoes, a few ounces of fried bacon to give a taste, a good deal of hot water. The twelve basins are then filled with thin slices of brown bread, and the hot water, flavoured with the above ingredients, is poured upon the bread. . . . The meal at noon is composed invariably of potatoes followed by a second dish. In this second dish consists the only culinary variety of a peasant's life. It is either a pancake, made with a great deal of flour and water and few eggs, or a salad, or clotted milk. No wine or meat is allowed, except during the great labours of haymaking and harvest." The peasants' wives carefully observe the fasts of the Church. Mr. Hamerton tells a story of an old peasant of over seventy, whose wife kept him on such short commons in Lent, that towards Easter Day,—in anticipation of which a pig had been killed,—he cut a slice of the pig and fried it in sight of his wife and family, and in defiance of his wife's protracted and bitter lecture.

Meals of the peasantry.

In spite of the frugality which makes the peasant's life appear so unlovely to a foreigner, they have many virtues, much intelligence, and much happiness. Own-
ing, in the vast majority of cases, each his own small segment of land,—sometimes in numerous minute

Fast days.

virtues of the peasantry.

fragments separated by considerable distances, owing to the various relatives by inheritance from whom he may have derived his property,—the peasant is a proprietor, and is dignified by the fact. He is not subject to any man; he has a voice in local affairs; if he has little, it is his own; and public opinion favours and makes respectable the economy which is necessary. Far from esteeming a man according to the amount he spends,—which is too much the case in England,—the French peasant esteems a man according to his economy, and perhaps the amount he hoards annually—an extreme too far in the other direction. Yet this quality has given France untold strength in modern times, by enabling the peasant to become a holder of Government stock and to subscribe largely to Government loans. Each holder of

His invest-
ments in
Government
stock.

stock feels that he has an interest in his country, an interest which is vital to him—an interest quite different from that of any man whose value is merely as “food for powder,” or who is only a tax-payer. This is the strength of the Conservative Republic, that its roots dive right down into the humblest, or almost the humblest, class in rural France, where scarcely any other group of people strong enough to constitute a distinct, still less an opposing, interest exists; just as the weakness of the Republic is in the Radicalism of the large towns, where the workman, destitute of a stake in the country, mobile, excitable, broken loose from the restraints of priesthood and property, lacks reverence for abstract right and for some very practical moralities, and respect for law and order.

The peasant, it must be confessed, is very ignorant; but education is now compulsory, and will soon change the face of the land. Already it is showing its effects in an increasing attraction of the peasants’ sons to the towns, and in a tendency to extravagance, in ^{Gradual} changes in the reaction from too great economy. The old ^{changes in the} rural districts. superstitions will tend to die out, though they have a remarkable power of persistence. A whole pharmacopœia of rustic remedies will disappear, though it may be doubted whether wine as the chief remedy will

not survive. It is to be hoped that the treatment of a cold with wine with which a melted tallow candle has been mixed will disappear—as to the tallow candle. Eggs beaten up with soot are not so bad for fever as might be imagined. The doctor has a hard time of it in these country places, if indeed he exists at all; for the people believe, if he cures his patient, the latter would have come round in any case; and if he fails, it was useless to spend money on a doctor. Magic and sorcery they consider much more potent. It is a strange survival of ^{superstitious} savage belief, to find large numbers of people ^{customs.} who believe there is a special kind of prayer which can cure every illness or evil. Other strange survivals are the customs of putting a coin in a dead person's hand (to pay Charon the ferryman with), and putting flowers in a child's grave, that it may have something to play with.

The rural priest is usually a humble, benevolent, useful person, who is generally respected, but who sometimes shows too much tendency to convivial enjoyment at others' expense, to make up for the celibacy and the penury to which he himself is condemned. Of ^{The rural} late the scepticism of the towns has begun to ^{priest.} extend even to the country; and the peasant is beginning to think that obedience to the priest is a sort of precaution which may not turn out to be of use, but yet that it is as well to obey to a certain extent. And this is true, in spite of the phenomena of pilgrimages to various holy places or scenes of miracles, which have taken place in recent years. They have chiefly rested with, or been supported by, the women, who are still devout or superstitious.

It may be doubted whether the lack of colonising force which the French have in modern times shown, is not a defect due largely to the system of subdividing ^{small} property, and of living on independent small ^{families.} holdings, which tends to make the people think a large number of children an evil. It may be also connected with their frugality; for enterprise which overcomes difficulties, and risks everything in the face of the unknown or of novel conditions, is not easily reconciled

with that economy which, before all things, recognises as sovereign virtues keeping within narrow limits, risking nothing, above all losing nothing. Not only is the population stationary, if not slightly declining, but the disposition to colonise scarcely exists among the people. The expeditions to Tonquin and Madagascar, the conquests of Algeria and Tunis, have not been due to the need for an outlet for overflowing energy, but have proceeded from a desire for national glory, which, since the great Napoleon's days, has been so much dimmed, with only the Italian campaigns for European relief. And distant warfare, unsupported by colonies or a colonising spirit, has proved difficult, inglorious, and costly. Thus France, while strong in her people's frugal hoarding, and in their keen sense of national honour, is relatively much weaker than under Louis XIV. or Napoleon Buonaparte. But the people are happier, more contented, more well-to-do than under these potentates.

Lack of
enterprise
and colonis-
ing force.

FRENCH CITY LIFE.

Foreigners' ideas of the French are largely coloured, necessarily, by their view of them in the great cities, especially in Paris. It is impossible for an Englishman who has not seen it to imagine the gaiety, the brightness, the colour, and the clearness of atmosphere, of a typical French boulevard or street promenade. Equally impossible is it to imagine the vivacity, the light-heartedness, the panoramic variety, the bustle of enjoyment, the alluring attraction of the scene. For a thorough change of scene, for an insight into another nation's ways, for a picture of a different mode of enjoying life—to broaden one's view, to refine one's taste, to inspire a wholesome feeling that British ways are not in all respects the best—nothing more desirable can be recommended than a trip to Paris, especially in the spring and early summer.

The Parisian boulevard is usually at least a hundred feet wide, with good and very wide pavements well planted with trees. The houses, shops, or hotels are



NORMANDY PEASANT.

lofty, and many are grouped into one design; thus, ^{The Parisian} though there may be sometimes too much boulevard sameness, there is at least harmony. Space is remarkably utilised; the series of shops may extend upwards to the fourth floor, and the court-yards of great compound establishments are often utilised similarly. Each house is a compound one, with a *concierge*, or door-keeper, who views the entrance and exit of all residents and visitors; and it is subdivided usually into ^{Suites of} apartments, many separate tenements, each complete in itself, and forming flats, or portions of flats, superior in the completeness and attractiveness of their accommodation to anything attempted in Scotland. Even an attic "*appartement*" will have its minute kitchen with stove, its lavatory, its separate bedroom and sitting-room, if ever so tiny, and frequently its balcony, at which the tenant of the sky parlour enjoys the purest air, and the fullest view of the heavens.

This system of small suites of apartments, under which many families may be combined in one house, is in keeping with the French town habit of taking *déjeuner* and ^{Living at} dinner in public at restaurants; and, in fact, ^{restaurants.} living much more in public than our insular exclusiveness can tolerate. Prices, too, at most restaurants are so moderate that it is quite as cheap to live in this way as to laboriously purchase for one's self and cook at home; and by this plan the number of servants kept by the middle classes is very largely reduced. In fact, they are almost entirely dispensed with in many a French middle-class home, where, in a corresponding station in England, two or three servants would certainly be kept.

Then, for a spectacle, whether permanent or temporary, what country can compare with France? An instinctive ^{Skilful ar.} sense for colour, for decoration, for inexpensive ^{rangement of} effectiveness, for making the most of the materials available, — for devising something which shall illustrate or be pertinent to the subject, or question, or person that is being *fêted*, — makes French *fêtes* delightful. The spectators, too, are cheerful and orderly, and enjoy themselves far better than an English crowd, with

its horseplay, its contempt for anything cheap or slight, its dislike of many "sentiments," or its fear of betraying those it really feels.

Again, where are art collections and exhibitions generally so easily accessible as in Paris? Where in London can a modern collection of sculpture ^{Public} exhibitions be seen comparable to that at the Luxembourg? And the public display of statuary and grand national monuments; the grand views down almost every boulevard, and the ensemble of every square; the numberless fountains; the many good markets; the superior artistic arrangement of the most ordinary or the most ^{Good} markets. intractable materials in shops; the clean white caps and other garments of the working women; even the paper decorations of the butchers' shops, set an example that England might well follow.

Yes; Paris,—notwithstanding its history of barricades, revolutions, its Communists and Red Republicans, the brutality of many of the working men, the venality of many of the official classes,—with all its faults, Paris is the most delightful of capitals, gifted with charms which can efface the signs of a siege in a few weeks, and rising superior to the ashes of a conflagration almost in a few hours. It is the city to which others besides "good Americans" desire to go. The clear Seine, on a bright day, from a river steamboat, presents a panorama of beauty amid the works of man, such as no other city perhaps can equal.

But beauty granted, does France possess learning, education, constructive genius, manufactures, power of organisation? Does France possess homes and domestic virtues?

To all these questions, "Yes" may be answered. Schools are abundant, cheap, and good, whether those under the State or those conducted by the priests. A system of *lycées*, or high schools and colleges, extends throughout France; and the great University of Paris ^{Schools and} colleges. draws its pupils from all departments. It cannot be said that technical instruction is anything like so highly developed as in Germany; but it is making

progress under the Republic, which also has made education compulsory. Learning is not less profound than in England, though the total number of learned or highly educated men is probably smaller. The rewards of learning are abundant; successful literary men receive high payments. Writing for newspapers occupies many, and is well paid. A popular editor is a famous man, and is personally well known to the people. An editor may overthrow a ministry, and may not improbably become a minister himself. It must be allowed, also, that in a certain art of popularising knowledge, and of decorating it artistically, French writers are unrivalled. No others can equal them in elegance of diction, in fertility of illustration, in weaving romantic and charming ideas around the most prosaic facts. As to original writing and thought, who can doubt that France holds its own with any age or country, seeing that it has produced a Molière, a Victor Hugo, a Descartes, a

**Originality
of thought
and construc-
tive genius.**

Pascal, a Voltaire, a Montaigne, a Dumas, and many other brilliant men? As to constructive genius of various kinds, Notre Dame, and a multitude of ancient cathedrals; Saint Ouen, the Panthéon, and Napoleon's tomb, and a great assemblage of modern buildings; the fortifications of Paris; the framing of the French Constitution, and the organisation of the armies of the first Republic and of Napoleon; the construction of the Suez canal, and many brilliant discoveries in physical science and chemistry, may answer sufficiently. French genius is not only remarkable; it is essentially brilliant and well suited to put itself in evidence; owing to which latter quality we sometimes forget the former, and unjustly depreciate the solid powers of the French intellect.

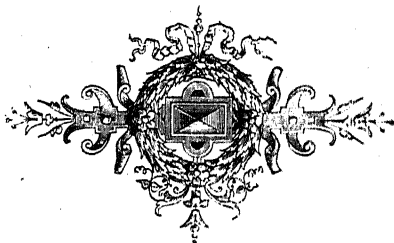
French manufacturing industry is somewhat limited by her limitations of mineral wealth. But the iron of St. Etienne, the linen and cotton of Amiens and Lille, the wine of Central and Southern France, the salt of the South-east, and, above all, the silk of Lyons, testify plainly that France is no mean manufacturing country.

But as to home and domestic virtues, what can be said? In the first place, great allowance must be made for difference of habits, owing largely to ^{Open-air} difference of climate. ^{social life.} Open-air social life is far more developed in France than in England; and owing to the lack of coal, and also to the warmth of a large part of the year, the open hearth fire, which is the symbol of British domesticity, is unknown in France. Families, as a whole, do not so regularly spend their time in association as with ourselves; and men, to a large extent, pass their time together, and enjoy less of the companionship of women. The latter are devout and uninstructed, except as to some of the Church's teaching; the men are, as a rule, not devout—more intelligent and more sceptical; the affairs of this world and of men interest them, as well as games of chance and skill, in which women seldom take part. Thus the structure and arrangement of French society differ markedly from our own. But it would be absurd to maintain that brutality is more common in France than in England. ^{French} Politeness of a certain type is a special growth ^{politeness.} of French soil. And morality in general, in the country and smaller towns, is about as high as in corresponding grades of society in our own isles. Great towns have their vices, as with us. They are acknowledged and regulated in France; with us they fester secretly, and destroy myriads without shocking the national sense of respectability.

Marriage is often deferred later by men than in England; and the majority, both of men and women, think more of prudential considerations than of personal attachment. Unmarried girls rarely have more than the slightest acquaintance with young men, and only meet in the presence of their elders; and thus courtship is very much slighter and more formal than with us. Real acquaintance mostly begins with marriage; ^{Courtship} and yet, strange to say, personal distaste ^{and marriage.} between married people is not common, and it is rather the rarity of warm personal attachment than the frequency of unhappy marriages that we note in France. The

dowry is the predominant idea, how much settled income the young couple will have; and certainly the end of preventing destitution is attained in most cases. Of course this does not apply so strictly to the poorer classes; but there is little of that reckless marrying seen in English towns, which too often ends in quarrelling or in poverty. French ideas on marriage are very different, their homes are very different, their social life is very different from ours; but it must not hastily be assumed that the advantage is all on our side.

The idea of glory, at once the attraction and the bane of France; her thrift, at once her strength and her weakness; her art, often so noble and brilliant, yet sometimes degenerating into artifice; her politeness, descended from religion and chivalry, yet at times becoming a most elaborate falseness; her continual search after the best government, her repeated disappointments; her vivacity, her wit, her literature, her science, make every student say, "There is none like her, none." May her faults decrease and her virtues grow!





CHAPTER VI.

The Spaniards and Portuguese.

The Iberians and Celts in Spain—The Phoenicians and Carthaginians—Greek Colonists—The Punic Wars—The Roman conquest and long domination—The Vandals and Suevi—The Visigoths—Conquests by the Saracens—Rise of native patriotism—Navarre, Aragon, and Castile—The Moors called in by the Saracens—Maritime discovery—Columbus—The Inquisition—Decline of Spain and Portugal—The Spanish Populations of to-day—The Basques—Ignatius Loyola and Francis Xavier—Adventurous spirit—Local assemblies—The Basque language—The Spanish character and habits—Sobriety and moderation in eating—Muscular and warlike achievements—Corruption of officials—Elaborate politeness—Gambling and bull-fighting—Life held of little moment—Theatrical amusements—Spanish women—Spanish homes and living—Indolence and lack of education—Etiquette and grandeeship—The Portuguese—Large mixture of Jewish and negro blood—Antipathy to Spaniards—Loquacity—Physical characters—Treatment of criminals—The Peninsular languages—Wide-spread extent of the languages.



IMPERIAL Rome has left her traces wherever she has held sway, and nowhere more unmistakably than in the Iberian peninsula. The Iberians of early date, with the Celts who drove them back, were partly amalgamated with the Romans, and ^{The Iberians known as Celtiberians, and Celts in Spain.} though preserving much of their purity in the North, and having left their mark behind them in the origin of very many names of places throughout Spain. The Celts were once spread through Castile, Galicia, and even Portugal; but few traces of

them now remain except funeral mounds and stone monuments.

These people do not appear to have immigrated by the coast, but rather over the Pyrenees—although there must always be some doubt about prehistoric events. It is at all events certain that many other races made settlements on the coasts of Spain long before the Christian era, arriving by sea. Unlike the northern races, which spread for conquest and plunder, the Mediterranean people spread mostly for the sake of trade; the Phœnicians being the first

The Phœni-
cians and
Cartha-
ginians.

adventurous prototypes of the modern Briton of whom we have considerable knowledge. Gades (Cadiz) and Malaga were among their settlements; and their lineal descendants, the Carthaginians, founded Cartagena and many other places in Spain. Greeks from Rhodes founded Rosas; and Saguntum (now Murviedro) was an offshoot of Zacyntha, or Zante. Even from Massilia Greek colonies of the second degree were sent out to Spain.

Greek
colonists.

The Carthaginians under Hamilcar bade fair to subdue all Spain, and might have long retained it but for their inveterate hostility to the Roman power. Owing to the fact that Spain had been used as an important base of operations and route for Hannibal's terrible attack upon Rome, it afterwards became the theatre of the sanguinary wars which established Rome for six hundred years as mistress of Spain. The Roman dominion was not maintained without fierce insurrections, which required such generals as Julius Cæsar and Pompey to subdue them. These six hundred

The Punic
Wars.

The Roman
conquest and
long domi-
nation.

years,—the longest continuous period of domination by any power which has befallen Spain, though it is now nearly fifteen centuries since the Romans were driven out,—have left upon Spain an abiding impress which is one of the enduring testimonies to the greatness of the Romans. The language is predominantly Roman; and great fortifications, aqueducts, and roads still speak of them. The Roman conquests, like those of the Greeks, have lasted long after their death.

The Vandals, the Alanians, and the Suevians, more or less in combination, and forming part of the northern Aryan and Tartar wave of immigration into Europe, reached Spain as Imperial Rome was dying, and with their fierce onset drove out the effete legions. The natives, long Romanised and subject, could not make head against the invaders. The Visigoths soon followed them, finally conquering and absorbing the Alanians and the Suevians. This people, akin to the Teutonic conquerors of Gaul, had a substantiality and power of settling which led them to amalgamate considerably with the natives, and thus build up a more homogeneous Spanish people; while the Vandals, ever thirsting for "fresh fields and pastures new," crossed over to Africa and established a kingdom there, to be overthrown in its turn by the Byzantine general Belisarius, and later extinguished by the Saracens.

The great number of Gothic kings that succeeded one another in Spain in the sixth and seventh centuries was a sign, however, that their power was not sufficiently consolidated to resist well-organised attack and capable rulers; and this in spite of the spread and influence of Christianity, which, however, partook of the weakness of the Gothic rulers. The Saracens, Mahomet's Arab devotees,—endowed with remarkable genius for warfare, for government, and for architecture,—having conquered the Vandals in Africa, attacked the Spanish peoples early in the eighth century, and established their power first at Cordova, afterwards extending it over the whole peninsula. So successful were they that they extended their arms into France, threatening to subdue the Frankish as they had done the Spanish amalgamation of races. But Charles Martel stopped their career; and, thrown back upon Spain, they consolidated a power which lasted for more than three hundred years, till reinforced by the yet more conglomerate and only partially Arab Moorish race, who speedily became predominant over their allies, and for four hundred years held a considerable part of the peninsula.

But all this time a native patriotism and power were



SCHOLARS OF SALAMANCA.

rising in Spain, beginning in the North and North-west, where foreign influences had never held exclusive sway, and extending slowly but surely southwards. Rise of native patriotism.

Asturias may be reckoned as the cradle of Spanish liberty; and the Asturians kept up independence of Mahometan power almost uninterruptedly. Gradually



VASCO DE GAMA.

Navarre became independently organised, and Sancho of Navarre became King of Castile in 1026. The kingdom of Aragon was not long in rising after this. Leon and Asturias were united to Castile in 1037; and late in the century, when the King of Castile had inflicted heavy defeat upon the Saracens, and conquered many provinces,—including Lusitania, now known

Navarre,
Aragon, and
Castile.

as Portugal,—this was established as a vassal government under Henry of Besançon.

The Moors, called in by the Saracens, now became dominant over their allies; and pouring into Spain successive hordes, long held the South of Spain, and even extended their dominion over a considerable portion of the old Saracen empire.

The Moors called in by the Saracens. Cordova, Toledo, Seville, etc., were conquered, however, by Ferdinand III. of Castile before the middle of the thirteenth century; and the Moors took refuge in the kingdom of Granada. Still, for more than two hundred years, the Moors maintained their power, until the strength of the separate kingdoms of Aragon and Castile was consolidated, owing to the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile, in 1469. At last Granada was taken by Ferdinand, in 1492, and the King of Spain, a powerful ruler, had for almost his sole rival in the peninsula the power of Portugal, which, advantageously placed, had been entering upon a career of maritime discovery of the utmost importance to the civilised world.

Beginning with their appropriation of Maderia and the Canaries, Portuguese voyagers went down the coast of Africa to the Cape, which Diaz discovered in 1487, while Vasco de Gama found out the way to the Indies by the Cape, in 1497. Ere this, however, Spain had had the honour of apparently solving the problem of a western route to the Indies, and had really discovered the West Indies in 1492, Ferdinand and Isabella having aided the Genoese Columbus with ships.

Columbus. But the Cape had been doubled before Columbus, in 1498, landed on the continent of America. In 1499–1500, Brazil was discovered by Portuguese adventurers, and thus was paved the way for the Spanish and Portuguese dominion over a large part of America—a dominion gained and maintained by frightful cruelties, attended by the perpetration of abominable slavery, and made use of to support unbridled luxury

The Inquisition. and terrible wars of conquest, which made Spain the handmaid of the Inquisition and almost the arbiter of Europe in the sixteenth and part of



COLUMBUS AT THE COUNCIL OF SALAMANCA.

the seventeenth centuries. During a considerable portion (1580-1640) of this period, Portugal too was united with Spain, but has since led a frequently disturbed, but independent, existence.

Since the period of the Philips, the disastrous losses inflicted on the Spanish power by France and England in numerous wars, the superstitions encouraged by the priests, and the enervation produced by the riches derived from American and other foreign lands, have deteriorated the Peninsular character so seriously that it is but a ghost of its former self; and this deplorable decadence is strongly evidenced in the continued and bitter hostility felt by Spaniards and

*Decline of
Spain and
Portugal.*

Portuguese against one another—a mean hostility, not rising to war in which one or other might conquer, but displayed in inscriptions like that over a country inn, “To the slayer of the Castilians,” in contemptuous-looking figures over doors pointing in derision towards Spain, in numberless proverbs, songs, and tales. This peninsula, with a remarkable and important, if not beneficent past, compounded of many of the most vigorous and able races that have visited or settled in Europe, endowed with a fair sky and a fertile country, is now in an old age, proud yet fallen, and counting for almost nothing in European politics. It would seem that modern restrictions upon and discouragements to enterprise are perpetuating decay. In other times, a sharper struggle for existence would have ere this revived and renewed the wasted fires of Spanish youth, and with an infusion of new blood would have once again made the garden of Spain a power in the earth.

THE BASQUES.

The Basques, a curious survival of an ancient time, though yielding a cordial allegiance to the Spanish throne, maintain their own tongue tenaciously in the provinces of Navarre and Biscay, where they number something over half a million; but even now the younger generation are somewhat careless about this, and are gradually becoming assimilated to the Spaniards, in language at least. They are generally of rather small build, but powerful and active. Their dark features are contrasted with grey eyes. Activity is the distinguishing characteristic both of men and women; and nothing can exceed their agility in climbing their native cliffs. Hospitality is one of their striking virtues, combined with a sturdy independence and patriotism, and a somewhat inordinate pride. Although passionate, their word is their bond; and even the laws they observe are unwritten, but not the less strictly obeyed. Gambling unfortunately attracts them greatly, while dancing and music find in them unwearied votaries. Yet the Basques are not without a strain of very serious devotion; and

they have gained a considerable place in religious history in producing two such remarkable men as Ignatius Loyola, the founder of the Jesuits, and Francis Xavier, the Jesuit missionary to the East. As is natural, seeing the extensive line of sea-coast they inhabit, the Basques have manifested a good deal of adventurous spirit, being notable whalers and fishermen. In fact, they have almost exterminated the principal species of whale they used to catch. They have emigrated largely

Ignatius
Loyola and
Francis
Xavier.

Adventurous
spirit.



SPANIARDS.

to various parts of America, where they have remained pretty distinct.

The Basques still retain their local assemblies, or *fueros*, which are probably one of the oldest forms of local government extant, maintaining carefully their ancient rights, which date back almost to the Roman period, before any Spanish kingdom existed.

Local
assemblies.

The Basque language is a peculiar one, unlike that of any of the races with which they are in contact, and dating back no doubt to a very early period. In this aspect it is of peculiar interest scientifically. It is a language which expresses all inflexions

The Basque
language.

and other relations by a series of suffixes, so that a single word may stand for almost an entire sentence. Thus the ending of a word may express at once mood, tense, person, and number, the case and number of the object, and the sex, rank, and number of the persons addressed, besides other relations.



SPANISH LADIES.

SPANISH CHARACTER AND HABITS.

Dark-featured, proud, contemptuous-looking, and, as a rule, dignified, the Spaniards scarcely lend themselves to general description, for they vary so much among themselves, owing to their great diversity of race. But super-

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stition and almost servile obedience to the Crown are characteristic of very many of them. Living in a land of wine, they are on the whole remarkably sober, and moreover they are equally moderate in eating, rejecting the flesh meats of more northern peoples. Yet in past time the Spaniards have been notable for their muscular achievements, whether in fatiguing journeys or in military encounters. Now-a-days their martial and muscular power is a shadow of what it was; and unless we adopt the view that superstition, combined with the sacrifice of so much of her best blood in wars, is the cause, it is not easy to comprehend why Spain has so conspicuously fallen behind in modern times.

Now-a-days the Spaniard leads a quiet, not to say indolent life, at times silent and grave, at others voluble, full of high-sounding words and compliments, not intended to be too literally interpreted. When roused, none can be more passionate, or more ruthless in revenge. The Government is one of his conspicuous objects of hatred, notwithstanding his loyalty; and if one object more than another interests him, it is any chance of cheating the revenue. To do them justice, the government officials, for the most part, are equally willing to cheat the people; and as an official, nothing can well be worse than the Spaniard. Repudiation of debt and non-payment of interest, with disregard of treaties and engagements, is a twice-told tale in Spanish history. And none can more skilfully disguise objectionable conduct under the most elaborate forms of politeness than the Spaniard. Fine phrases and wise proverbs they abound in, far more than in noble deeds. As a discerning traveller, Mr. Rose, in "Untrodden Spain," remarks: "Passionate, but rarely revengeful; careless of others' lives, yet equally so of his own; more enduring and contented than courageous as a soldier; very generous of what he has; sober, but not very chaste; polite and kind, but not very truthful; cruel, and yet warm-hearted; not patriotic, yet very fond of his country; proud, and yet ready to serve and help—the Spaniard

has many noble qualities. But he needs education of heart and mind, moral as well as mental culture."

Unfortunately, among their vices gambling is a very prevalent one. Lotteries, cards, roulette, even pitch-and-gambling and toss—indeed, all forms of gambling are practised bull-fighting with astonishing ardour. The bull-fights of Spain, the regard shown to the bull-fighter for his courage and dexterity, the applause of the ladies of Spain, are well known; but we must remember that these and kindred amusements were not so many centuries ago in full vogue in our own country. A bill to abolish bull-baiting was thrown out in our own House of Commons in 1802; and it was not made illegal till 1835. As might be

Life held of little moment. expected, cruelty to other animals than bulls is rife in Spain; and that valuable animal, the mule, has a bad time of it. The life of an animal one cannot expect to find regarded, where the life of a man is held of small account. "A word and a shot" expresses a very frequent occurrence. Even the dead are treated with no respect, so low have the Spaniards fallen. They are often buried with the scantiest ceremony, and the cemeteries are too frequently disgracefully kept.

It is not bull-fights and gambling alone, however, that constitute the popular amusement. Dancing and dancers, **Theatrical amusements.** singers, players, absorb almost equal attention; and the Spaniard can exhibit a passionate excitement over theatrical amusements which astonishes our more cold-blooded temperament. But painting, to which in past times Spain gave a Murillo, a Velasquez, a Salvator Rosa, is now far below its former level.

Ladies are kept in very great seclusion, not mingling much in general society. Girls are even more strictly guarded than in France by mother or duenna; and consequently the Spanish lover exhausts all devices to deceive or circumvent the natural or unnatural guardian. The excitement of the Spanish male lover is justified by the

Spanish women. attractions of his lady love, for the sparkling dark eyes, graceful manners, and sweet voice of the Spanish women make them more than rivals of the beauties of most other nations. Attention to religious

duties is the chief thing which calls them from home; and in the latter sanctum they spend no little time in the exciting occupation of peeping into the street from behind blinds or curtains. The men do not trouble their wives with much of their company, and indeed pass a great deal of it out of doors.

Spanish homes are, in fact, not very tempting. Even when externally magnificent, they are internally shabby or unfurnished, just sufficing to contrast former state with modern poverty. Living is very ^{Spanish} plain; and in truth high feeding is not needed ^{homes and living.} in the warm southern climate. The grand universal dish is a stew, which may be composed of the most varied materials, the *olla podrida* being the favourite combination, and garlic a rarely absent ingredient.

It is actually the fact that the fertile soil of Spain has largely gone out of cultivation in modern times. The soil is so productive, however, that it maintains the people in a moderate way with comparatively ^{Indolence and lack of education.} little labour. The day's work is short, and is always interrupted by the rather long mid-day sleep, or *siesta*. In this atmosphere it is not to be expected that education should flourish; and it certainly does not. It will not do to omit reference to Spanish ideas of etiquette, which are very complex. The Grandees form a special order of nobility, entitled to wear their hats in the king's presence. The title, though usually hereditary, is entirely dependent on the will of the king, who can as ^{Etiquette and} easily take it away as give it. ^{grandoeship.} Grandeeship was first conferred by the Emperor Charles V.; but there are numerous titles of nobility much older than this. It is amusing to read tales of the extraordinary form and ceremony observed at the Spanish court in past ages; but they are not so extensively practised at present.

THE PORTUGUESE.

As our readers will have gathered, there is no essential difference between the Spaniards and the Portuguese; yet the latter are more strongly marked in two points—the infusion of negro and of Jewish blood. While very

many Jews have settled in many parts of the Spanish peninsula, they have intermarried most largely with the natives in Portugal, in consequence partly of an old condemnation to slavery, and the baptism of their children. Negroes were formerly imported in large numbers; and their descend-



PORTUGUESE MULETEER.

ants, mingling with the Portuguese, colour them of a darker hue than the Spaniard.

Although the Spaniard thinks himself much above the Portuguese, he might take a lesson from him in several respects. The Portuguese is more industrious, and often a good deal more agreeable, not so prone to take offence. But "Spain and Portugal," as a Portuguese remarked to a traveller, "though in such close contact at Antipathy to so many points, can never mutually coalesce; Spaniards. they are like two men sitting back to back to each other, who will never turn their heads." They pour contempt upon each other; and the Portuguese of some districts, both North and South, are among the Loquacity. fastest speaking people in existence, especially if interrupted.

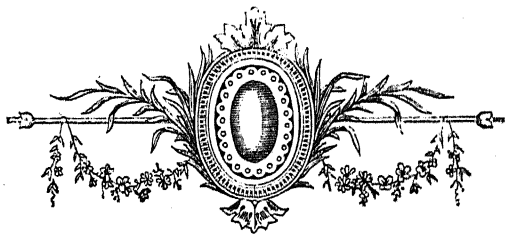
The Portuguese are far less handsome and dignified, as a rule, than the Spaniards; yet the women have fine eyes and long hair. Among the predominant dark- Physical characters. complexioned people are met both sallow and light-haired people. The features of the Portuguese are less regular, and their lips thicker than those of the Spaniards. But the Portuguese are marked by a more humane temperament than their neighbours. Capital punishment is no longer enforced, and ordinary imprisonment is scarcely penal enough to deter from Treatment of crime. Sympathy goes too largely with the criminals. criminal; and he frequently receives considerable evidence of this in the shape of abundant provision handed in to him through the open panes of his gaol window, or placed in a basket let-down outside his cell. Perhaps this is because the authorities supply so little, that the prisoner would fare badly without some additional supply.

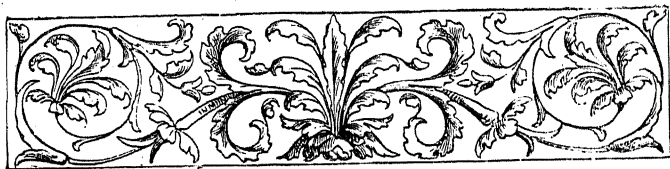
THE PENINSULAR LANGUAGES.

Spanish is essentially a "Romance language," that is, one founded on that of the ancient Romans; but there are wide differences in the different provinces, so extensive that their natives are not understood by one another. In the North there is a strong admixture of southern French, or Provençal. Portuguese and Spaniards do not understand one another; and yet the languages are fundamentally similar, though Portuguese rejoices in

more nasal sounds than Spanish, but is less guttural, and their words differ a good deal. Again, in some parts, traces of Teutonic speech are more abundant, while in the South, the Arabs and Moors have left more than a little mark upon both language and habits.

As with English, the Peninsular languages are most extensively spoken outside their native countries. Through-
Widespread
extent of the
languages. out South and Central America, Mexico, and Lower California, Cuba and Porto Rico, the Philippine islands, and even to a considerable extent in Florida and New Mexico, one or other of these languages is spoken. Practically, in the past the Spaniards and Portuguese have been the most enterprising and successful of colonisers next to the English, perhaps owing to their own complex origin. Hence we cannot but regret that they are now in so lamentable a state of decay.

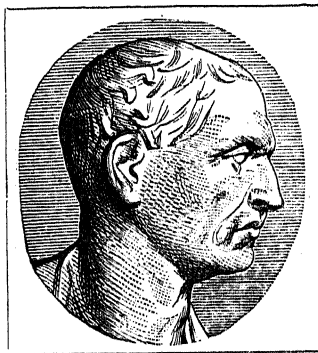




CHAPTER VII.

The Italians in the Past.

A kingdom of Italy a novel thing—Peculiar shape led to division—The ancient peoples of Italy—The Pelasgians—The Sabellians—The Etruscans—Magna Græcia—Composite nature of the Latin language—Formation of the Italian people—Conquests of the Goths—Invasions of the Lombards and Franks—The Holy Roman Empire—Rise of the towns and cities—Development of arts and manufactures—Wars and domestic turmoil—The revival of learning—Power of the Church of Rome—Complete foreign domination—Freedom regained.

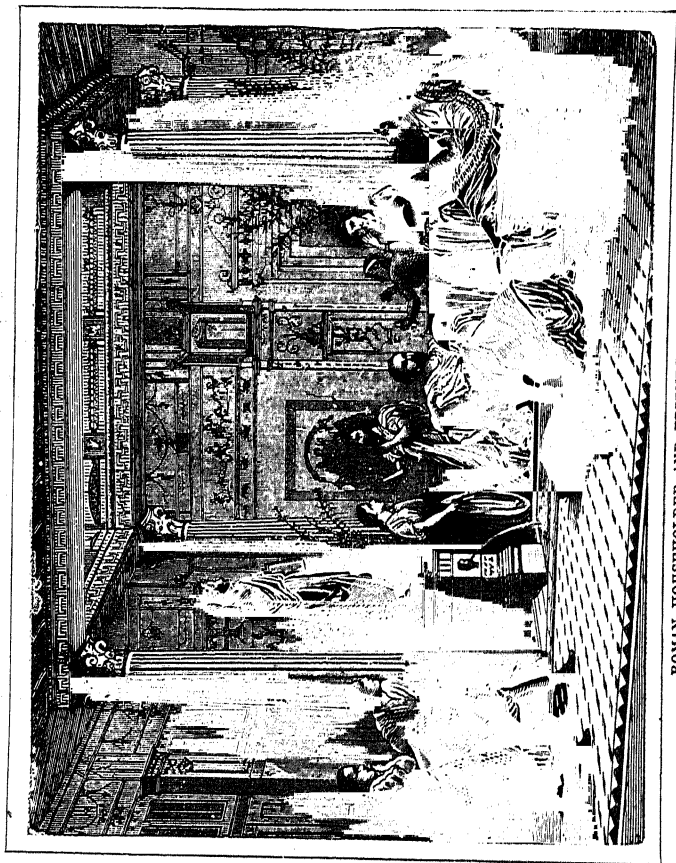


JULIUS CÆSAR.

ITALY, the second cradle of European life and civilisation, as Greece was the first, still exercises a potent sway over our affections and imagination; and it has been one of the bright pages of England's history, to have aided with sympathy and practical help the liberation of enslaved Italy in these latter days. Only when Rome swayed all the Peninsula, has it been

united under one dominion, until the present era, when a real kingdom of Italy exists for the first time. And now has dawned a day which may bring brighter things for the Italian nation than any past. It will not bring

back the time when Italy gave law to the world ; but there may yet rise a free, strong, noble Italian nation, to accomplish more within her own limits than she has ever done in the past.



ROMAN HOUSEHOLDER AND FRIENDS IN THE ATRIUM.

Peculiar shape led to division. The peculiar long and narrow shape of Italy has always favoured its division into a number of small States; and from the dawn of history onwards, such has been its fate, except when Rome

dominated the whole. No doubt, successive tribes entered it by different routes and at different times; and it appears hopeless now to discover which race was earliest. When the Romans first emerge into history, we find that there were in Italy at least six races, the Pelasgians, the Oscans, the Sabellians, the Umbrians, the Etrurians, and the Greeks, in the portion of Italy south of the plains of Lombardy. It is natural to imagine a peopling of Italy from the North, from the East, and from the South, though of its precise history we know nothing, until we hear of its colonisation from Greece. But the Pelasgians are regarded as semi-Greek in origin, and were represented by many tribes, especially in the South.

The ancient peoples of Italy.

The Pelasgians.

The Sabellians, including the Sabines and the Samnites, were early conspicuous among the typical Italian nations, occupying the fertile upland valleys of the Apennines. Multiplying and spreading, they issued forth into the lowlands, and both conquered and mingled with the tribes already settled there, whether Pelasgian or more distinctively Greek. The Etruscans were a very distinct people, occupying Etruria and spreading north into what afterwards became Liguria and Cisalpine Gaul. Although they have left abundant evidences of their power in ruined cities and architectural works, of their artistic skill in their pottery and their tombs, and of their literary power in their inscriptions, it is still a mystery whence they came, to whom they were related; and we have no more trustworthy information than the statement of Herodotus, that the Etruscans proceeded originally from Lydia in Asia Minor. But great as their power at one time was, it was destined to pale before the inroads of the Gauls on the North, and the attacks of the Romans on the South. But the struggle was fierce, and lasted intermittently for more than two hundred years, till near the middle of the third century.

The Sabellians.

The Etruscans.

So many were the colonies founded by Greek cities in southern Italy that it early received the name of Magna Græcia; and it appeared possible at

Magna Græcia.

one time that the purely Greek element might dominate the peninsula. The name of Naples is a standing Greek monument, and reminds us of the time when it was "Neapolis," the new city. But the Greeks kept too proudly aloof from the people whom they conquered, and thus suffered the necessary penalty of the ultimate extinction of their power before a ruder, stronger people, more capable of mingling with their subordinates.

Thus we gain a glimpse, but only a glimpse, of the complex origin of the Italians—which partly accounts for the all-mastering power of Rome.

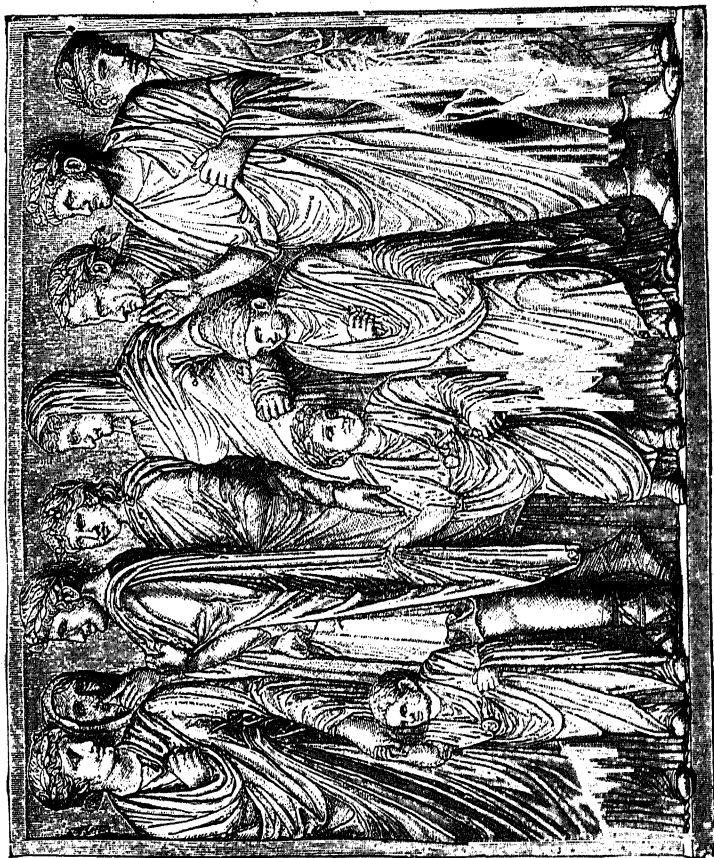
The Latin language is undoubtedly largely derived from the same Aryan stock as the Greek, though it cannot be called strictly an offshoot of the Greek. Very many of the roots of words are fundamentally the same; but many show some other origin, not Etruscan, and probably Oscan and Sabellian. "It is certain," says Dean Liddell, "that the nation we call Roman was more than half Sabellian. Traditional history attributes the conquest of Rome to a Sabine tribe. Some of her kings were Sabine; the name borne by her citizens was Sabine; her religion was Sabine; most of her institutions in war and peace were Sabine." Thus, in her earliest rise, as for so many centuries, Rome showed that assimilating power which is one of the most striking features of many great and permanently conquering peoples.

We cannot even sketch in outline the conquering career of Rome, which, beginning with self-conquest and self-denial, spread to neighbouring cities, to neighbouring States, and then over alien races in Italy, to Sicily, Gaul, Sardinia, Spain, Africa, Greece, and over the greater part of the known world. The Italian peoples, for the most part, became citizens of Rome; but foreign wars carried many of them to die in distant lands, while at the same time great multitudes of aliens, enrolled in Roman legions or enslaved in Roman houses and on Italian estates, came to live and often leave descendants in Italy; and thus a rich motley gathering of races mingled with the older inhabitants of the peninsula.

Composite
nature of
the Latin
language.

Formation
of the Italian
peoples.

From this mixture arose the handsome, dark-hued, dark-eyed Italian race, whose women not unfrequently approach the rich beauty of the Spanish women ; and whose men, in their passionate glances no less than in their turn for



THE EMPEROR AUGUSTUS AND HIS FAMILY.

brigandage and the exaction of vengeance, show the remnants of the old warlike instincts by which their ancestors won such deathless renown.

But Rome became enervated by the services of slaves

and the riches gained by conquest; and in turn gave way to the onslaught of the northern Aryans. She who once **Conquests of** had driven the Gauls by a mighty effort from **the Goths.** her own gates, and had afterwards subdued them, and many other Celts and Teutons, in their own homes, was first reduced to buy off the Goths with a tribute, then to diminish her borders, and finally became the scene of repeated contests, terminating in a total collapse of all shadow of her old power, at the end of the fifth century A.D.

The Lombards, a Teutonic tribe, followed the Goths in 568, but made no general conquest of Italy. They

Invasions of founded a kingdom in Northern Italy, of which **the Lombards** Pavia was the capital, and a duchy at Bene- **and Franks.**

ventum in the South. They prospered so considerably as to attract the Franks from Gaul, who, in 774, succeeded in destroying the Lombard monarchy; and finally, under Charlemagne, subjugated the greater part of Italy. Dexterously making his peace with the Pope, he was crowned Emperor of the West, in 800;

The Holy and for several centuries, Italy was conjoined **Roman** with Germany in a "Holy Roman Empire," **Empire.** the German division having successfully asserted its predominance over the Frankish. Thus Italy, which for ages had dominated the civilised world from Rome, was in its turn trodden under the heel of a foreign power—another instance of the whirligig of time bringing about its revenges. And a form of the feudal system, under innumerable counts and viscounts, kept the entire land in something but too like slavery.

It was then, as in our own and other lands, that the gradual growth, through commerce, of the towns and **Rise of the** cities, built frequently where feudal lords had **towns and** little or no control, changed the aspect of **cities.** affairs. Compelled to fortify themselves for protection against Saracen, Moorish, and other piratical attacks, as well as from inroads of northern plunderers, these cities in time became strong, and attracted to themselves large populations, especially of those who were industrious and desired to be safe from oppression.

Visited only at intervals by the Emperors, the Italian nobles and magistrates, as well as citizens, both in the rural districts and towns, became more and more independent in their conduct and bearing, and waged incessant wars against each other. Several cities, such as Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Rome, and Gaeta, retained continuous independence after the fall of the old Roman Empire, or were under nominal subjection to the newer Byzantine one. In these and many other cities, such as Florence, arose powerful communities, to which European civilisation is enormously indebted, owing to the intercourse between widely-separated countries which they fostered, the arts and manufactures which they encouraged and diffused, and the spirit of independence which they kept alive. But they, in their turn, were not exempt from faults and evils. Too often they exerted a ruthless tyranny over neighbouring weaker communities; too often they were under the domination or tyranny of oligarchies, or of single rulers; and this, together with the endeavours of foreign princes to retain or to gain power in Italy, kept the country in a continual turmoil for centuries. Wars, battles, sieges, assassinations, murders, tortures, thickly strew the record of Italian history in the middle ages; and no country in Europe failed to become mixed up with the Latin peninsula in one way or another.

Development
of arts and
manufactures.

Wars and
domestic
turmoil.

While many evils arose thus, there was one conspicuous advantage. When the ferment of activity and thought which attended the crusades, so widely productive of novel effects, manifested itself so conspicuously in Italy in the literary activity of Petrarch and Boccaccio, and there burst forth in the fourteenth century that renewal of interest in and study of the literature and remains of Greece and Rome which has lasted till the present day, and is the foundation of our present culture, its diffusion over Europe was rendered possible by this same extraordinary amount of intercourse between other nations and Italy. On the other hand, the world owes to Rome the extraordinary institution and influence of

The revival
of learning.

the Papacy, which, at first claiming but a spiritual supremacy over Christendom, came to demand full power over the temporal possessions and even lives of the adherents of the faith. The support given by the Church to the divine right of kings became the occasion for claiming authority to appoint and to depose monarchs; and the frequent exercise and enforcement of this claim in the middle ages was another cause of the remarkable prominence of Italy during that period. After the Renaissance came the Reformation, which however but slightly touched Italy, although in the end greatly influencing her position by withdrawing a large portion of Europe from her authority.

Notwithstanding the revival of letters, the enfeebling effect of the prolonged contests of Guelphs and Ghibelines (perhaps the most extraordinary phenomenon of the middle ages), and the rise of the Dutch, Spaniards, and English as competing rivals in trade, at last so weakened the Italians that they fell more than ever a prey to foreign domination. The French became masters in the North; the Spaniards conquered Naples and Sicily; the Germans obtained Venice; while, for a time, the Papal States and Tuscany retained their independence. Later, even the republics of Tuscany were subjugated; while the Papal States were governed in a manner which left their condition little, if at all, better than that of the rest of Italy. Struggles continued on Italian soil between the various nations (to whom the Swiss were now added) that contested to which of them Italy should belong, and, as Sismondi says, bequeathed nothing to that nation but long-enduring, hopeless agonies, which lasted till beyond the middle of this century.

More terribly harassed and devastated, depopulated and impoverished, depressed and lacerated than any continental nation, Italy has been late in regaining liberty; and owes it, in various degrees, to England, France, and Germany, combined with her own efforts under Cavour and Garibaldi. Liberated from the temporal domination even of the Pope, Italy is now free to build up her power and to undertake important enterprises, with hopes of success which have long been absent from her.



CHAPTER VIII.

Italians of the Present Day.

Descendants of noble families—Hospitality and simplicity—Roughing it in the country—Fickleness and independence—Children and education—Women and babies—The peasants' costume—Low wages and diet—Amusements—Poverty and idleness and disease in large towns—Brigandage and secret societies—Abundance of nobles and knights—Politeness and education—Universities—Emigration and colonisation—Outlying Italian populations—The Sicilians—Successive settlements in Corsica—The Vendetta—Transmission to children—Trivial causes—Nuragghi of Sardinia—Successive conquests—The modern Sardinians—Semitic origin of the Maltese—The Knights of St. John—The modern Maltese—Italy beyond the borders.



VICTOR EMMANUEL.

of ancient nobles who live in proud poverty and isolation,

AS in the past, Italian people are broadly divided into two groups, the townspeople and the country people; and it is a question which of the two are the more interesting. The townspeople are the more striking; and perhaps on them more than the rest the future of Italy depends. One peculiarity of the country districts is, the number of descendants of noble families.



VENETIAN LADIES SERENADED.

often still holding lands and receiving from their tenants a sort of feudal service, but little cultured, unenterprising, and in every way behind the age. Hospitality is perhaps their leading virtue; but the dining-room will have a stone floor, one knife, plate, and fork will do duty for many dishes, and numerous domestic animals will be wandering about at will. In a large palace will perhaps be found many fine rooms without carpet or furniture.

Hospitality
and
simplicity.

In this primitive state of society, says the author of "Our Home in the Adriatic," "the oxen tread out the



ITALIANS.

corn; women spin and weave their clothes from flax they have grown themselves, and dye it with herbs. Money is little used as a medium of exchange; so much wool bartered against so much oil; so much wine against so much flax." Indeed, life in the country is a species of roughing it. The peasants not unfrequently live in considerable numbers in the lower parts of the great houses; and they are bound to do everything for their lord, receiving half the profits of the estate.

Roughing it
in the
country.

A strange independence, mingled with fickleness and

servility, characterises these people of the lower class. An engagement is kept only so long as it is **Fickleness and independence.** convenient; and it is convenient only so long as no trifling cause of offence arises or no slight variety tempts elsewhere. Language and habits are both primitive and coarse; no reserve at all is practised. Children are often treated cruelly; and yet sentiment is rife and tears flow like water on occasion. But the loss of a cow is far more terrible than that of a **Children and education.** child to very many parents. Education is almost non-existent, and there is next to no disposition to adopt new callings or to introduce new arts. The old ways are clung to with desperate vehemence; and in too many cases local government is nothing but another name for rampant bribery.

The rural women occupy themselves in bad cookery and in procuring or making and wearing such finery as they can get. Their ignorance is appalling. **Women and babies.** Infants in early life are bandaged very tightly round the waist and legs, so that they cannot move the latter, and are carried about hung upright under one arm. Old wives' doctoring is preferred; but the doctors are not as yet marvellously better. Dirt is cherished; washing is rare; floors are not even scrubbed; a yearly wash suffices to supply linen for most households, and this is connected with the habit of accumulating vast quantities of household requisites, the preparation of a girl's *trousseau* beginning when she is quite a little child.

The peasants have largely given up their former picturesque costumes. On week-days they wear a white smock, and on Sundays ungainly home-made coats and trousers; but still their high-crowned hats **The peasants' costume.** with a feather or a flower stuck in them, their earrings, their red sashes, garnished not unfrequently with a knife, distinguish them very markedly from the English agricultural labourer. The women, however, outshine them, with their highly-decorated stays, worn uncovered in summer, their blue or red skirts over white petticoats, their gay kerchiefs over the shoulders and head, their enormous gold earrings and fine neck-

laces. Sometimes, on festivals, as many as eighteen petticoats may be worn.

Both sexes of the peasants work at hard labour for very little pay, a woman earning for a long ^{Low wages} day only about fourpence-halfpenny and a ^{and diet.} man sevenpence-halfpenny. Indian corn bread with a



ROMAN WOMEN.

little fruit is their staple diet; meat or eggs are the rarest luxuries.

In spite of their low estate, these poor peasants contrive to extract some amusement from their life, without the necessity of luxurious eating or drinking. ^{Amusements.} Bands, dancing, theatres, even in very small places, are always attainable; masquerading and buf-

foenery not unfrequently while away the time; fairs afford a never-failing arena of business combined with pleasure; bowls, fireworks, and lotteries,—the last passionately pursued as in Spain,—fill up a not inconsiderable proportion of time.

The Italian towns are largely occupied by an idle population, who, finding that life can be supported on a very little, will not bestir themselves to earn more; and

Poverty and
idleness and
disease in
large towns.

in fact greatly prefer to receive it gratuitously by begging, or as a species of black mail. This is greatly aided by the careless liberality of rich visitors. In a city like Naples multitudes live huddled in the most wretched, filthy hovels imaginable. These are appropriate homes for virulent epidemics, especially cholera. And this exists side by side with streets and squares of magnificent palaces, into which strangers come, too often to be struck down by mortal disease. "See Naples and die," has been too true a forecast to many an unfortunate foreigner.

No doubt, as the Italian kingdom progresses and consolidates its power, it will put down mendicancy and

Brigandage
and secret
societies.

brigandage, which flourish but too abundantly, and will ultimately succeed in abolishing the tyranny of the secret societies, which enforce so many private decrees by a sanction more dreaded than that of the law. But at present these evils flourish, partly in consequence of the imperfect organisation of agriculture, and partly because of the great changes which have been worked in Italy since 1859, which, while consolidating Italy into one kingdom, have lowered the status of so many flourishing capitals of small States, till their empty grandeur is but a poverty-stricken ghost of its former self.

There are infinitely too many nobles and knights in Italy at the present time, especially as nobility is mostly considered to absolve from all real work. All the States into which Italy was formerly divided used to the full their privilege of conferring titles, and often bestowed them for a pecuniary consideration. And when nobility is conjoined with poverty, the

Abundance of
nobles
and knights.

spectacle is not edifying; it too often makes the noble an adventurer, if he do not become practically a plunderer of any victim he can lay hands on. This taint of dishonesty is but too evident throughout Italy.

Fortunately the politeness of the people operates as an abundant salve, when it does not run into the excess of servility. The priests are becoming less ignorant and detrimental, it is to be hoped; the Italians of the towns are cultivating education with an energy which reminds one of the Renaissance; and science certainly flourishes in Italian universities, some of the best of modern memoirs on astronomy, physics, chemistry, and geology having come from thence. But the universities have been established in too great numbers for the present condition of the people, and consequently there is not a sufficient number of capable professors; and the tenure of posts by ill-qualified men for long periods is most injurious to education. There is a general tendency nowadays to the adoption of the Tuscan or literary form of Italian, and the disuse of the varied and barbarous provincial dialects.

Whether for good or evil, the Italians have of late begun to emigrate actively, but not to colonise, for in most cases they return home with their gains. A great army of waiters, Italian organ-grinders, and ice-cream men have arrived in England and other countries; and South America, especially the Argentine Republic, has received a much more useful class of immigrants, who take readily to almost every class of work and do it well. Some parts of Africa, such as Tripoli and Massowah, are beginning to be largely Italian; and there is this much to be said for Italian colonists, that they are accustomed to hard fare and low pay, and can get on where others would starve.

OUTLYING ITALIAN POPULATIONS.

Sicily differs considerably from the Italian peninsula in its inhabitants. It was so early and so extensively colonised by the Greeks and Phœnicians, followed by the Carthaginians, Saracens, and Moors,—while the Normans,



ROMAN MOTHER.

Scandinavians, and French have settled there in considerable numbers,—that the people are quite distinguishable from their compatriots of the Continent. More excitable and passionate than the Italians, the Sicilians are still more easy-going and polite, witty, generous, and appreciative of beauty.

The Corsicans, though now nominally French, and speaking an Italian dialect, are neither French nor Italians; but having been so long associated with Italy they may be mentioned here. Whoever the Ligurians, who occupied ancient Liguria in the dawn of history, may have been, the Corsican aborigines were probably people allied to them; but many settlements of Spaniards, Phœnicians, Greeks, Tuscans, Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Goths, Saracens, and Pisans succeeded one another till the relative share of each in the present population is extremely doubtful. The Genoese maintained possession of it for a long time, but were compelled to yield it to the French in 1768, since when, with the exception of a brief English domination (1793-6), Corsica has been gradually becoming a normal French province. For long, however, the mountain people cherished strong ideas and sentiments of independence, and often struggled heroically against invaders. Agriculture is still very imperfect, and much of the island work is done by Italian summer-labourers.

The *vendetta* is the most celebrated institution of Corsica, where family feuds have been rife and have been kept up by the traditional habit of handing down the feud from generation to generation. “Children, before they were born, were doomed to the same unrelenting life of savage hate and bloodshed; and boys of tender years were brought by their mothers before the bloody corpse of their father, and made to swear, with baby lips, undying vengeance and murderous retribution, so soon as their hands should be strong enough to grasp a gun and their skill sufficient to point it home to the heart of the foe. Thus the hand of every man was against his neighbour’s, and this not for serious causes only. Soon the *vendetta* be-

tween different families began to arise from the most trivial causes. A man spoke slightly of another man's friend or relative, or, may be, his dog; a dispute occurred as to a date, a measurement, the opinions of a third. A hot word was spoken; out came the ready dagger, or the ever-loaded gun or pistol; a human heart ceased beating, and a murderer fled to the mountain-side or the caverns on the lonely rocks, and became thenceforth a pariah, issuing only to commit fresh murders, supported secretly by his relations, but never more known to the world at large; until at length a retributive bullet laid him low, or his hiding-place was betrayed and he was miserably slain by the military police." ("A Lady's Tour in Corsica," by Gertrude Forde.)

It is not probable that the early Sardinians were very different from the Corsicans; but the former have left **Nuragghi** of many monuments, and indeed were great **Sardinia.** builders of Cyclopean erections of stone, known as *nuragghi*, which are large round towers of massive blocks with irregular faces, and loftily placed. They are supposed to have answered the double purpose of being mausoleums and refuges. Almost as many powers disputed the possession of Sardinia as of Corsica; but the Spaniards retained hold of it from 1324 to 1720, when it was given up to the dukes of Savoy, who then took the title of Kings of Sardinia. Since that time, with the exception of a few years of French domination, in the time of the Republic and First Empire, Sardinia has been one of the most loyal of the Italian dominions.

The Sardinians of to-day still show the influence of their long Spanish subjugation; and a decidedly Spanish cast of features is largely present. Gravity of **The modern Sardinians.** demeanour is in them combined with a revengeful temperament, so that the *vendetta* flourishes. The majority of men wear a black cloth sleeveless blouse, a black cap, and white breeches; while the gun and long curved knife, regularly worn, show too truly what an amount of personal protection is deemed necessary. Education is still very far behindhand; and the numerous peculiar dialects spoken tend to hinder its spread.



VENETIAN LADY.

Malta has been still more a highway of the nations and a subject of their contests than even Sardinia and Corsica; and to this day it shows intense peculiarities.

Semitic origin of the Maltese. The Phœnicians, in their early voyages, colonised it and prospered; their descendants, the Carthaginians, and their supplanters, the Saracens and later Arabs, further impressed their individuality upon it, and have left a special type of a Semitic language nearly pure in the country parts, while the towns have a mixture of Italian and other foreign words. Greece and Rome held it for various periods; and it is famous in Scripture history for the shipwreck of St. Paul upon it (Acts xxviii.). The Normans, in their conquering ravages, did not omit to visit Malta; and settling there, and reintroducing Christianity, the knights of Malta became celebrated throughout the early mediæval period. Later, it became attached to Sicily, and then, with Sicily, to its Spanish rulers. In 1530, Malta and its neighbour Gozo were granted by the Emperor Charles V.

The knights of St. John. to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, who, through many contests with Turks and with Moorish pirates, held it successfully till Napoleon landed in 1798, after which period a heroic defence was sustained by the Maltese till 1800, when the English took possession.

The Maltese are strong and well-formed, the men being dark and handsome; the women black-eyed, with fine hair: the people generally are sober, cheerful, The modern Maltese. abstemious, and industrious; but, like the Sardinians, their temper leads to a too ready use of the knife. The majority are ardent Roman Catholics, and keep the festivals of the Church with great zeal. The population is overcrowded; and all round the Mediterranean Maltese are to be found, chiefly in the Levant and North Africa.

The Italian race is spread in addition over nearly one-third of Switzerland, Ticino, Grisons, Neuchâtel, Italy beyond the borders. Valais, Aosta, the Engadine, the Italian Tyrol, Istria, Trieste, and the Dalmatian coast; but in all these districts there is a great admixture of other races.



CHAPTER IX.

The Germans.

The Germans and Germany of the past—The Teutons in Germany—Vicissitudes of German Teutons—High and Low Germans—Account given by Tacitus—Groups of warriors—Respect for women—Popular sovereignty—The Romans and the Teutons—Separation of Germans from Franks—Teutons and Slavs—Various German confederacies—Importance of Prelates as temporal rulers—The electors of Germany—Decay of the Empire—Modern Germany—Rise of Prussia—The electors of Brandenburg—Prussian energy born of conflict—Modern Germans—Mixture of foreign races—Light and dark types—The Germans a very homogeneous people—Value of national literature—Luther and the Reformation—Lessing's *Laocoon*—Kant, Schiller, Richter—Goethe's *Faust*—Recent historians—The professor and the lieutenant—Exhaustive knowledge—Study of England and its history—The German soldier—Education and drill—Burden of the military system—The German temperament—Duelling—The German student—Characteristics of Germans—Knowledge of music—The opera and theatre—German officialism—Exhaustive lectures—German manners—German women—Separation of sexes—Housekeeping—Main kinds of food—Food of the poor—Agriculture—Manufactures—Trade.



THE GERMANS AND GER- MANY OF THE PAST.

REMARKABLY distinct from the southern peoples we have been describing, yet as truly Aryans as the Italians, are the Germans. The Teutons But when we first in Germany. hear of them in history, they were in Germany, already settled on both banks of the Rhine. Whether it was by reason of the migrations of the Slavonic people from the East pressing upon them or not, the Teutons, of whom the Germans form so important a section, early began to

show a power of migration, of conquering, of settling; and tribes of various names swarmed, not only into Britain and Gaul, as we have seen, but also into Denmark, Scandinavia, and Iceland. In this chapter we shall deal chiefly

Vicissitudes of German Teutons. with those Germans who stayed at home. These have been subject to remarkable vicissitudes, possibly from the circumstance that it is usually the bolder, more active, more determined, who make foreign conquests, leaving the weaker at home, less able to stand up for themselves. Thus the history of Germany has been but a chequered one, until quite modern times.

They early became divided into two sections, High and Low, the latter having given off the Northern Germans, **High and Low Germans.** or Saxons, and the Dutch, with the Scandinavians; while the High Germans, or Suabians, have occupied the plains and mountains of central Europe.

In the time of Tacitus, who gave a most valuable account of them in his "Germania," the Germans were divided into numerous tribes; among them the Batavi, already settled in part of the modern Dutch territory; the Frisians, along the North Sea and Baltic; the Suevi (Suabians), in central and eastern Germany; the Lombards, at the mouth of the Elbe; the Vandals, further south on the same river. **Account given by Tacitus.** Tacitus describes them as being tall and powerful, fair, with blue eyes, with long fair hair; their features were regular, and their heads of the long type.

In this early period the German tribes were but fluctuating groups of warriors, with their adherents; and there is no necessity for our purpose to regard them **Groups of warriors.** as other than Teutons of one name or other, scantily clothed, but slightly agricultural, hunting, or living on the milk and cheese of large herds of semi-wild cattle. Drinking and gambling were among their strongest passions; but it must be noted to their credit, that women occupied a more important place with them than with many primitive tribes. They were **Respect for women.** treated with more respect; and their opinions were asked and often followed in matters of moment,

and their enthusiasm encouraged the men to the highest deeds of warlike heroism.

A great point in the history of the Germans, is their early democratic and local government. Each tribe, each settlement, had its assembly of all who could bear arms; and this assembly exercised most of the functions of sovereignty, too often impulsively and passionately. Generals were elected only for special occasions, and an able chief might be chosen by numerous tribes, and thus attain great power; but this ended with the war or other purpose for which he was chosen.



A GERMAN CROWD.

Although Rome first appeared in Germany as an invading power, it was but as the sequel of those immense marauding expeditions and immigrations by which the Teutons had so often threatened Rome, or given her an uphill fight; and it must be acknowledged that the Romans failed to seriously conquer the Teutons, who, when they were attacked within their own borders, often inflicted crushing defeats on their foes. When the Roman Empire declined, the Teutons, under various names, overran it, and at last

The Romans
and the
Teutons.

completed its conquest, both internally and externally; for Germans were received and raised to high offices, in the hope thus of staying the torrent. But, like Alexander's empire, the German power broke up when it had become too great for effectual control; and after the days of Charlemagne the German Teutons became marked off from the Franks and the conquerors of Italy and Spain.

The Teutons meanwhile had been pressed in the East by the advancing power of the Slavs, whom they partly threw back, and partly conquered and assimilated to themselves. The Saxons in the north and centre grew more and more into predominance, gaining power by confederating many minor tribes; the Alemanni (from whom the French name for Germany, *Allemagne*, is derived) formed a similarly powerful confederation in the South; and the Suabian German confederacy in the South-east completed the early grouping of German tribes. From the year 887 onwards a kingdom or empire of Germany has mostly been in existence, though often much divided, without much semblance of supreme power in any one person.

The Church organisation lent itself admirably to the early German system. Abbots and bishops became temporal rulers and, as such, took an important part in affairs of State, especially in elections of Emperors, who came to be elected by an assembly of archbishops, bishops, abbots, princes, dukes, counts, margraves, landgraves, and barons, representing the persistent force of the old German tribal divisions. They were called "electors," and were really independent, though nominally members of the Emperor's household. In fact, the Germanic Empire became a confederation with an imperial figurehead, who could undertake important wars decided on by the States, but had no independent power except that of the individual States or principalities he might happen to rule. Herein lay a weakness as well as strength; and the weakness ultimately turned out to be

more than the strength, so that Germany was finally crushed between the rivalries of Prussia on the North-east, and Austria on the South, and the attacks of France on the West. The old Germany has been shorn of some provinces still incorporated in France, of Holland and Belgium, and of parts of Switzerland; while in late years she has reconquered Elsass and Lothringen, and has become unified as a new and more coherent Germanic confederation under the King of Prussia as Emperor; but a considerable portion of Germany is excluded from it, being under Austrian rule.

It is impossible to understand Germany in its present state without reference to the rise of Prussia. Originating in a march or markland, formed to protect Germany from the Slavonic Wends, Prussia has developed out of Brandenburg, till at the present day it is the name of two-thirds of the German Empire. For a long time the Slavs were in the ascendant, and the electors of Brandenburg waged a fierce struggle for existence, ending however in complete conquest, attended by a power of assimilating with the conquered, which has given the Prussians their distinctive peculiarities, and has had much influence in making them masters of modern Germany. The greatness of modern Prussia may be dated from the grant of Brandenburg, in 1415, by the Emperor Sigismund to his strong supporter Frederick, burgrave of Nuremberg, a prince of the house of Hohenzollern, which for three centuries had been growing in influence and power. How the elector of Brandenburg inherited East Prussia, a fief of the crown of Poland, how Prussia became independent of Poland, under the great elector Frederick William, acquired East Pomerania, Westphalia, Silesia, and many other territories, cannot be detailed here. Remarkable indeed has been the energy handed down from the time when life was one long fight against the Slavs, a condition which is not so far different from the present life of armed watchfulness against Slavs and French alike.

Decay of the
Empire.

Modern
Germany.

Rise of
Prussia.

The electors
of
Brandenburg.

Prussian
energy born
of conflict.

No doubt the division of the German empire into so many subordinate portions is still a source of weakness,



PEASANTS OF ELSASS (ALSACE).

while the disaffection of many inhabitants of Elsass is a still more serious drawback to German security.

MODERN GERMANS.

Modern Germany includes, besides Teutons, many people of other stocks. To say nothing of Jews and gipsies, there are multitudes of

Mixture of Poles, Li- foreign races.

thuanians, Wends, and Frisians. All these

will be mentioned elsewhere. But it must

be remembered that the Germans have a

very considerable admixture of Polish,

Slav, and Lithuanian blood in their veins,

and that their strength is largely derived from

that mixture. The intermixture of the

darker types with the lighter one which is

so generally Light and regarded as dark types.

the typical German type, is most marked

in the South, in Bavaria and the ancient

Suabia; but a considerable number of

dark - featured Germans are to be found

also in the North, where it can only be

said that the majority are fair-complexioned,

with blue or light-coloured eyes and fair

hair. The head is long-shaped, and stature is generally



PEASANTS OF ELSASS.

rather tall. But such is the effect of the intimate intermixture which populations undergo in modern times, that, according to inquiries made by the German Government in late years as to the complexions of German school-children, it is found that more than half,—fifty-four per cent.,—must be classed as neither fair nor dark, but mixed. The general preponderance of the fair type is shown by the fact that thirty-two per cent. are classed as decided blondes, as against fourteen per cent. with a brunette complexion. Eastern Bavaria and Elsass-Lothringen (better known as Alsace-Lorraine) furnish the largest proportion of brunettes.

The large percentage of intermediate complexions testifies however to the often-made statement, that the Germans are perhaps as uniform or homogeneous a nation as Europe can show. If being drilled tends to produce uniformity, then the Germans have had a good chance of becoming uniform. Trade intercourse and customs unions did much to produce unity even in the days of great independence of the chief Germanic States. But what has done most to promote German unity is the national

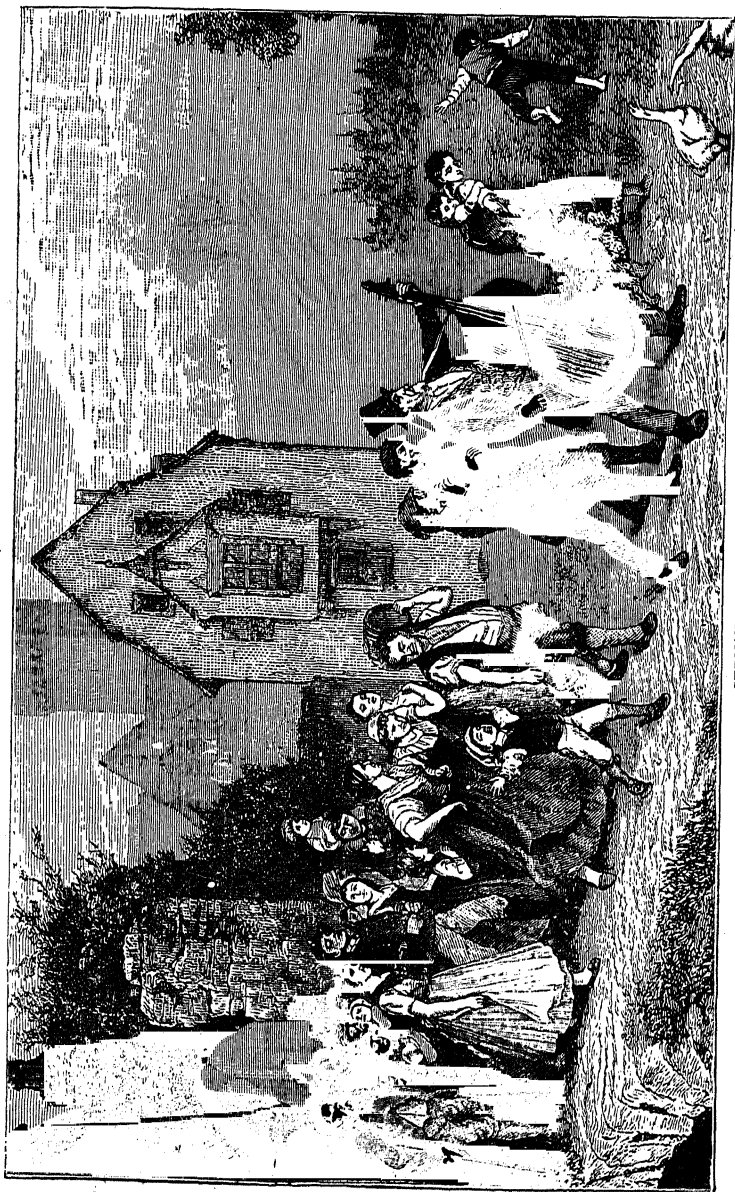
The Germans
a very
homogeneous
people.

literature, which, late in development compared with that of England, has been absorbed by the people and has vivified national feelings and aspirations in the last hundred years to an extent we can hardly comprehend, except by referring to our own literature of the Elizabethan time, when men thought and wrote and read and adopted noble thoughts which made our nation great in spite of many errors, when it was resolved that domination of foreign priest or potentate should never again be permitted by free-born Britons.

German literature, as a great product of thought, dates from the Reformation period, and begins with Luther, who gave his nation a literary language. The simplicity and strength of his translation of the Bible ranks it with the masterpieces of literary labour. Hans Sachs, the poet of the sixteenth century; Arndt, the religious writer; Jacob Boehme, the philosopher; and Leibnitz, the natural philosopher, of the early

Value of
national
literature.

Luther
and the
Reformation.



GERMAN PEASANTS.

seventeenth century, kept up a high level of thought.

But after them few great works were produced till, in the eighteenth century, Klopstock, Wieland, and Lessing arose; and the latter, especially by his "Laocoon," his "Education of the Human Race," and his "Nathan the Wise," gave a stimulus to the

German and even the European mind which Kant, Richter, it has not yet ceased to feel. Then came Schiller. Herder, Kant, Richter, Schiller, and Goethe; and the national genius culminated before the nation was as yet thoroughly welded into one. At the end of the last century the German was the greatest living literature of Europe, though soon followed by the brilliant

awakening of the British in the beginning of the nineteenth century. Goethe's "Faust" remains the most remarkable poem of the modern era, as the "Origin of Species" is the most remarkable prose work. Germany has continued recently, in the person of

Recent Heine, in crowds of theologians, philosophers, historians, and historians, in the front of intellectual progress; and Ranke, Curtius, Mommsen, and a host of others, teach our historians how to study and how to write history.

The German professor and the German lieutenant divide between them the chief place in our ideas of the nation; though in some eyes the German clerk, insinuating, self-denying, and all-knowing, looms large.

The professor and the lieutenant. The German professor is nothing if not exhaustive. He is great on the history of his subject. He knows more of its aspects and successes in England, France, or Italy, than a native proficient. He is well-versed in the opinions of every considerable man who

Exhaustive has ever "professed" his specialty. Apt,—knowledge. nay, devoted,—to tracking controversy through its thorny maze, he is prone to look down on those who ask, "What's the use of this?" as if knowledge for its own sake, although it may be of a quarrel over some intangible distinction, or the date of some unintelligible inscription, were not always a good thing. Thoroughness is his motto, though it be at the expense of eyes, health,

It cannot be said that the German student is in the smallest degree comparable to our stalwart University men. As Mr. Julian Hawthorne says in his *The German Saxon Studies*, "They are not a physically noble race; many faces are marked with disease, latent or developed, and the figures are ill-hung, awkward, or weakly. Half of these wear, not the sportive eye-glass, but the sober earnestness of spectacles. There is a fortune for oculists in Saxony; and I should not wonder if a good part of the current belief in the national learning might be traced to the sage and studious aspect bestowed by these semi-universal spectacles. As a matter of fact, however, their genesis is from bad diet, and perhaps from some quality in the atmosphere. Most foreigners who have lived long in Saxony will have found their eyesight more or less impaired."

As for the mass of German men, it may be true that they are stolid, coarse, unpolished; but they are certainly, on the whole, very industrious, easily pleased, not prone to intoxication, not extravagant; and they have the great and delightful quality, like their superiors, of being devoted to music. In Germany nearly every one knows music. In a village of a few hundred inhabitants may be heard more music, better performed, than in an English town of twenty or thirty thousand inhabitants. Haydn, Mozart, Mendelssohn, Beethoven, are revered, not merely with a conventional respect, but with a living regard. Their compositions are known, criticised, enjoyed, played, wherever a few Germans are gathered together. The village miller and carpenter, the schoolmaster and the doctor, combine to render the great quartetts; the beer-garden is also a music-garden, in which the inspiring waltzes of Strauss alternate with the soul-stirring overtures or symphonies of the greatest masters. The theatre, the opera, are not merely occasional but regular recreations. Early hours are kept, everybody goes, elaborate dress is not indulged in; and while in many cases the German theatre lacks the perfection and the costly show of London and Paris theatres, it

The German student.

Characteristics of Germans.

Knowledge of music.

The opera and theatre.

is not on that account the less satisfying to a healthy appetite.

On the whole, however, German life takes its tone



GERMAN PEASANTS OF ALTENBURG.

from the soldier and the professor. German officialism is excessive. Rule and red tape predominate everywhere. The professorial and examination system is but another

form of the military. An examination guards each grade of existence. A small post is only to be obtained by an examination equivalent to one German officialism. which would qualify for high honours in an English University. The professor reads out lectures slowly, sentence by sentence, so that every word can be taken down. His discourses are so exhaustive that nothing is left out, no place is vacant for the independent Exhaustive lectures. thought of the student. He is discursive, and too seldom knows anything of compression. Thus, to seek for the gist of his argument, is like searching for a needle in a haystack. It is all there, it is all good food, but you want an exceedingly good digestion to take it all in.

The coarseness of expression and of personal manners among the German masses can certainly be paralleled among our own masses. So far as it exists in higher classes, it may partly be put down to the comparatively low position assigned to women, German manners. partly to the meagre income which often accompanies higher education and station, and partly to a determination to get at the kernel of things, and not be content with husks and veneer. But a German who is well-bred and well-educated is one of the most delightful companions in existence — considerate, courteous, natural, unexact, simple-hearted, helpful, unobtrusive with his knowledge, he raises one's faith in human nature, as every true gentleman does.

But women must be more highly regarded before the German nation can rise further. At present they are almost exclusively left to household management; and even in that their scope is limited by the German women. exacting demands of the men. The wife and daughters are very apt to be valued most according to their expertness as domestic servants. Even their greatest men have not been exempt from this view. And marriage is not as sacred with them as it should be; divorce is too easy, and the proportion of illegitimate births is very large. In youth the sexes are not permitted to mingle naturally in the family circle and in



FRISIAN WOMAN, LANGENESS ISLAND, SCHLESWIG.

society; and the consequence is, **Separation that of sexes.** stolen interviews have an enormous charm. At the coffee parties, which represent our "afternoon teas," it is rarely that a man is present; and the talk is more trivial and un-elevating than in the most gossiping circle of an English country town.

But it is certain that German women have many virtues. They are excellent, if not always tidy, housekeepers. They do most laboriously con-
House-keeping. coct the dishes in which their spouses delight. Too often they may not marry before they have reached an age when "love's young dream"

has faded; for no man in a superior station may marry unless he has wherewithal to support a wife.

"There are three great characteristic divisions of German food," says the author of "German Home Life," "the salt, the sour, and the greasy: the salt, ^{Main kinds} as exemplified by ham and herrings; the sour, ^{of food.} as typified by *krout* and salads; the greasy, as demonstrated by vegetables stewed in fat, sausages swimming in fat, sauces surrounded by fat, soups filmy with fat. . . . The food of the lower orders in Germany is poor and coarse in the extreme: thin coffee without milk or sugar; black rye-bread which is always more or less sour (being made without yeast); potatoes stewed in fat, with a mixture of onions, apples, carrots, plums, or ^{Food of the} pears; now and then a bit of fat pork with ^{poor.} treacle; a mess of *sauer krout*; lentils, beans, and a piece of *blutwurst*; mysterious entrails of birds and beasts and fishes; cabbage boiled in grease, and a slice of raw ham. No beer for the women; no white bread. Schnapps for the men, distilled from corn or potatoes—a fiery coarse spirit that would be disastrous in its effects but for the mass of food with which it is mixed. . . . In mountainous districts the people live almost entirely on milk, flour, eggs, butter, cheese, and cream. To taste meat is an event in their lives."

Although we hear much of the importance and growth of German manufactures in our own day, agriculture furnishes the support of the vast majority of ^{Agriculture.} people. Its success is due largely to scientific method. Agricultural schools and model farms have been established throughout Germany. Among the chief manufactures are those of iron in Westphalia—Krupp's works, the largest in the world, being situated ^{Manufacture.} at Essen; linen in Silesia and Westphalia, wool-
len in the same, and also in Saxony and Wurtemberg; wooden toys and other goods in Bavaria. Of late years the foreign trade of Germany has largely in-
creased, and with it her fleet of merchant ^{Trade.} ships. At the same time Germans have shown a tendency to colonisation in Africa as well as the East; and

German commercial travellers have been surpassing our own in ubiquity, zeal, and success. This they do partly by their gift for languages, as they always take care to acquire the language of the people with whom they deal, as completely as possible. Then they study their wants and what is attractive to them, instead of endeavouring to force upon them commodities which can be more cheaply produced, it may be, or which are popular in totally different climates.



GOETHE.



CHAPTER X.

The Dutch or Netherlanders.

The Dutch chiefly Frisians and Saxons—Early inhabitants—Successive conquests—Ravages of Northmen—Counts of Holland—Alliance with England—Rise of municipalities—Burgundian domination—Spanish tyranny—The Princes of Orange—Struggles for liberty—Dutch foreign enterprise—The Thirty Years' War—Connexion with England—The Dutch great carrying trade—Holland's power diminishes—The French and the Dutch—Kingdom of the Netherlands—The Dutch of to-day—Distinctive character of the Dutch—Admirable qualities—Taciturnity, smoking and drinking—Seriousness and perseverance—Dikes and canals—Diminished maritime importance—Physical appearance—A Dutch farmhouse—Cleanliness and substantial comfort—Great commercial cities—Great colonial possessions—Dutch literature—Universities—Dutch art.



GEOGRAPHICALLY the Dutch are simply Netherlanders, inhabitants of a delta. They are specially a Teutonic people, yet they are not much more nearly related to the Germans than ourselves.

They are made up chiefly of Frisians and Saxons, mingled to some extent in the South with Franks. At various times there has been a considerable foreign admixture, many Germans, Scandinavians, Frenchmen, and Englishmen having settled in Holland

The Dutch chiefly Frisians and Saxons.

during its periods of prosperity, and Jews forming also a considerable body. No doubt there were pre-Teutonic

inhabitants of Holland, Celts of some kind ; but we know little of them ; and when Rome conquered ^{Early} inhabitants. Gaul, Teutonic tribes, Batavians and Frisians, were in possession of the "Insula Batavorum."

After a brief period of Roman subjugation, we find a patriot Batavian, Claudius Civilis, throwing off the yoke ^{Successive} of the Romans, but in the end succumbing to conquests. them. Then the Franks, the Saxons, and the Frisians for several centuries shared or dominated the



DUTCH GUARDS OF WILLIAM III.

Netherlands. At last Charlemagne became supreme ruler, and after his death the country went through numerous changes of Frankish and German rule.

Meanwhile the Northmen had begun to ravage the coasts of the Netherlands as well as Normandy, which ^{Ravages of} led to the committal of authority to Counts of Northmen. Holland,—from "Holt land," the rich woodland of the Rhine and Meuse,—who, mostly bearing the name

of Dirk, at last were able to maintain themselves more or less independent of the German Emperors, Counts of Holland. although going through many a bitter struggle in this process of self-assertion. In 1170, a great calamity befell the land, for a flood burst over both Holland and Friesland and enormously enlarged the Zuyder Zee. The Netherlands now became more and more involved with European nations; and we find Floris V. ally- Alliance with England. ing himself with Edward I. of England, and securing from him many trading advantages.

During this and the subsequent period, the liberties and local or municipal rights of the people were developed and consolidated; and the burgomasters and Rise of municipalities. councillors began to play important parts. Dort, Amsterdam, and Enkhuysen grew prosperous; but connexion with European politics brought as usual many miseries, and Philip of Burgundy in the Burgundian domination. fifteenth century managed to annex almost all Holland. Nevertheless the country grew in material prosperity; the arts and learning of the Renaissance found a congenial home in it, although Antwerp, Ghent Liége and Bruges were still more emphatically Spanish tyranny. their centres than Leyden and Utrecht. The Burgundian domination led up to the inclusion of Holland in the possessions of the Emperor Charles V., The Princess of Orange who, strange to say, was the means of introducing to Holland the founder of the House of Orange, itself a little French principality.

The Spanish rule became a gross and infamous tyranny, from which by infinitely varied and surpass- struggles for liberty. ingly interesting struggles, the Princes of Orange, aided by the great patriot John of Barneveldt, rescued the nation and established the United Provinces. But religious quarrels between Calvinists and Arminians unfortunately led to the execution of the patriot Dutch foreign enterprises. Barneveldt in 1619. This period was concurrently marked by Dutch foreign enterprise, which, by the end of the sixteenth century, had extended The Thirty Years' War. to the East Indies, the Dutch East India Company being established in 1602. The Dutch subsequently

became involved in the Thirty Years' War; and unfortunately James I. of England, being anxious to keep friendly



DUTCH WOMAN.

with Spain, took sides against Holland. But the successes of the Dutch, both by land and sea, against Spain, led to

a marriage between William of Nassau and the Princess Mary of England; and this in turn was the means of placing a Dutch prince on the English throne in 1685.

Connection
with
England.

During the seventeenth century, the Dutch gained and kept the carrying trade of the world, and developed great businesses of exchange, but not great manufactures—a fatal lack. At one time they were strong enough to sail up the Thames unmolested. When England and Holland became allies, under William III., England's prominence proved to be Holland's lowering to a secondary place, which she has ever since kept. Thenceforth Holland was only used by European powers as a pawn, flattered or contemned by turn, though by no means contemptible. By siding with the United States of America, the Dutch lost most of their West Indian possessions. The French Republic conquered the Netherlands, and formed a Batavian republic; Napoleon formed a kingdom of Holland for his brother Louis, and later annexed Holland to France. In 1813 the Dutch revolted, and formed the kingdom of the Netherlands, to which soon after Belgium was added. But the two were unequally yoked; and in 1830 Belgium revolted, and continues separate.

The Dutch
great carrying
trade.

Dutch power
diminishes.

The French
and the
Dutch.

Kingdom
of the
Netherlands.

THE DUTCH OF TO-DAY.

The mixture of races which has made the Dutch what they are, the continual contests with foreign powers, enterprise abroad, and self-protection from the sea at home, have rendered the Dutchman very different from the German. His language is quite distinctive, though so much akin; there is a valuable Dutch literature; and it will be a dishonour to the Teuton name, if German greed of power should induce the absorption of Holland into Germany. The naval heroism, the sedulous pursuit of commerce, the foreign enterprise, discovery, and colonisation, the noble struggles for liberty, the continuous battles with the inroads of the sea, the choice agricultural products of

Distinctive
character of
the Dutch.

Admirable
qualities.

Holland, all combine to make us wish to preserve so excellent an individuality, as among the salt of the European nations.

Taciturnity, solidity, perpetual smoking, and frequent drinking of "Hollands," and eagerness for pelf, make up the popular idea of a Dutchman. If we had Taciturnity, smoking and drinking. had a little more accurate vision of his sharp-shooting faculty, we should not have come off

so badly in the Transvaal. The Dutchman, when he has an object, perseveres till he has secured it. He does not

waste his strength on visionary enterprises; he Seriousness and perseverance. has serious motives and serious intentions. These may have sprung essentially from his

necessary mode of life for many centuries. He had to keep the sea back and to sail on the sea, and he has done it. Nay, he has done more than keep the sea out, he has driven it back; and now a large part of Holland depends

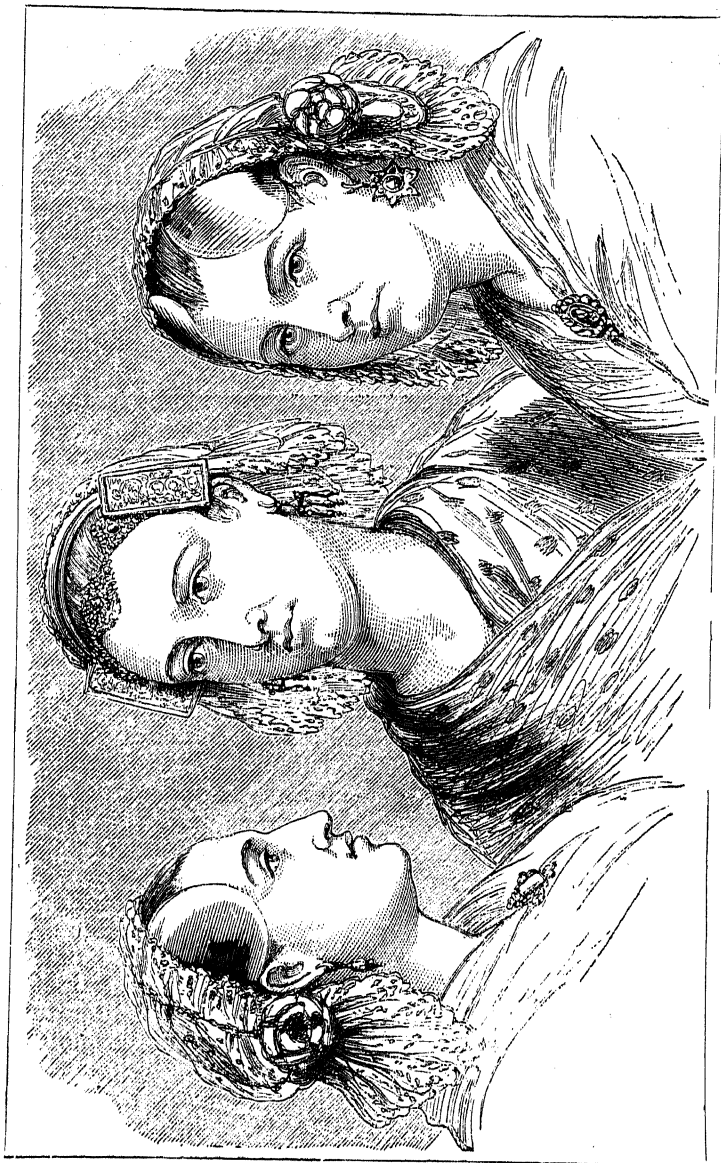
upon the perfect integrity of long lines of dikes, Dikes and canals. where the sea at high water is markedly above the level of the land. He makes the water further serve him by his intricate network of canals. Without moun-

tains or mineral wealth, the Dutch have not learnt to climb high or to soar far above earth, nor have they sought to penetrate deeply into things. But as regards material well-being and freedom, they have placed themselves in the front rank of mankind. Nevertheless

modern events have deprived them of much Diminished maritime importance. of their maritime importance—partly because many of their harbours have been closed by the continual growth of delta deposits of the rivers, and partly because the British people, more numerous, and with a longer seaboard, gained a preponderance through continental wars in which Holland was unable to emulate them, and thus gradually secured the carrying trade of the world.

The Dutch are certainly not tall; they tend rather to be broad, stout, and plump, unless when long smoking

and deep drinking have shrunk them some- Physical appearance what. Good-humoured on the whole, especially the women, their pleasantness takes a rather ponderous



THREE, SHOWING HEAD ORNAMENTS.

form; and the considerable sallowness of their complexion makes them rather common-place looking. But when we

A Dutch farmhouse. enter a Dutch home, especially a farm-house, cleanliness and friendliness are found in equal proportion, both being of the truest kind; and many Dutch dairies might challenge the world to show any thing to surpass them. The solid, substantial furniture,

Cleanliness and substantial comfort. the linen, the clothing, to be found inside an ordinary farm-house, are a marvel. Precious metals are so abundant, because never squandered, that many of the women wear a kind of golden curls, others a silver skull-cap.

The richness of the country is still more to be remarked in the great cities, such as Amsterdam or Rotterdam,

Great commercial cities. where jewellery, especially diamonds, are collected together in fabulous value; and where Jews from every nation congregate, as well as

multitudes of other foreigners. It must not be forgotten, too, that the Dutch still hold most valuable colonies and

Great colonial possessions. possessions in the East and West Indies, and that much of their wealth even now has its sources in the East. South Africa and the

Transvaal Republic are born of Dutch enterprise, though not now keeping up much connection with Holland.

Dutch literature as a whole does not take a high rank; but individual names of great eminence are to be noted.

Dutch literature. Among the famous writers of the seventeenth century Hooft, the historian of Holland; Brederoo, the comic dramatist; Vondel, the tragic dramatist; Grotius and Spinoza, the philosophers (who however wrote in Latin); and Brandt, the biographer of Vondel and De Ruyter, are the chief. In recent times Van Lennep, Bakhuizen, and Vosmaer are prominent names. The young novelist known as Miss Wallis has gained a hearing even in England; while Flemish literature, closely allied to the Dutch, has produced another notable novelist, Hendrik Conscience.

We must not omit to mention the great Universities of Leyden and Utrecht, which, especially the Universities. former, had in the middle and early modern

period a far greater reputation than our own Oxford and Cambridge.

We can only barely mention the greatness of that Dutch school of painting, which the remarkable genius of Rembrandt, and the notable names of Frans Hals, Jan Steen, Cuyp, Ruysdael, Terburg, **Dutch art.** Wouverman, Paul Potter, and Van de Velde, and many others, have made one of the most important in European art.





CHAPTER XI.

The Belgians.

Flemings and Walloons—Teutonic and Celtic mixture—Long connection with Netherlands—Domination of Austria and Spain—The kingdom of Belgium—Agriculture and manufactures—Coal and iron mines—Linen, cotton, and woollen manufactures—Antwerp and Ostend trade—Prosperity of Belgium—Self-satisfaction and fussiness—Turbulence in manufacturing districts—Characters of chief cities—Departed greatness—Bruges in the middle ages—Ypres and Ghent—The Brewer of Ghent—Manufactures of Liège—The Bishops of Liège—Vicissitudes of Antwerp—Ruined by Spanish and Dutch—Again prosperous—Cathedrals and municipal buildings of Belgium—Rubens and Teniers.



THE Belgians constitute a far less distinctive people than the Dutch. They are in fact an artificial compound of Flemings and Walloons. The Flemings, who are closely related to the Dutch, with the Walloons and French. French is the official and predominant language. The Walloons are descendants of the old Belgæ, a Celtic people; and thus Belgium presents us with many more resemblances to England than even Holland; for a Teu-

tonic and Celtic mixture forms the essential character of both English and Belgians. The Celts were conquered

by Germans, and long ruled by Franks. Among the counties and dukedoms into which it was divided, Flanders became superior. But for long centuries the fate of Belgium was to be tied up with the Netherlands. When the latter revolted, great part of Belgium remained under the rule of Spain; but successive portions were ceded to France, including Lille and Valenciennes. During the greater part of the eighteenth century Belgium belonged to Austria. The French Republic annexed Belgium in 1794; but after 1815 the kingdom of the Netherlands was created, which lasted till 1830, since which the kingdom of Belgium has performed the somewhat difficult task of keeping the balance between Walloons and Flemings.

Teutonic
and Celtic
mixture.

Long con-
nection with
Netherlands.

Domination
of Austria
and Spain.

The kingdom
of Belgium.

In common with Holland, Belgium attained very great commercial prosperity; but was never so distinctly a maritime or a colonising power. The Belgians have two great sources of wealth—agriculture and manufactures. In agriculture, Belgium is unrivalled, gaining from the ground all it can produce in great variety. This abundant productiveness is fostered by the division of the land into a multitude of small farms. Coal and iron mines form the basis of much manufacturing wealth; and the ironworks of Liège, Namur, and Charleroi are competing on advantageous terms with those of Great Britain. The growth of flax, and the manufacture of linen, cotton, and woollen goods, seated largely at Ghent, are other important industries of Belgium, making it the workshop as well as the garden of Europe. With this growth of trade, Antwerp and Ostend have increased very largely, and Antwerp has outrun Hamburg and Marseilles. Whether this growth is due to the mixture of Celts and Teutons, to the removal of restrictions and hindrances previously maintained by the Dutch, or simply to the possession by the Belgians of the mineral resources which are so essential in these days

Agriculture
and manu-
factures.

Coal and
iron mines.

Linen, cotton,
and woollen
manufac-
tures.

Antwerp
and Ostend
trade.

Prosperity
of Belgium.

to commercial success, it is difficult to say. In any case, Catholic Belgium has in late years outstripped Protestant Holland; and it is somewhat singular that both Celts and Teutons in Belgium agree in being Roman Catholics, Protestants being but a minute fraction.



BELGIAN MILK-SELLER AND DOG-CART.

The most prominent characteristic about the Belgians of the present day, next to their industry and excellent farming, is their self-satisfaction and, in the case of officials, porters, etc., their fussiness. Their self-assertive-



READING THE PACIFICATION OF GHENT, 1576.

ness is that of the little man who would fain say, I am as good, or as important, as if I were bigger. But this is a mild defect to set beside many excellences. Of late, however, the manufacturing populations have shown signs of a much more sturdy and indeed turbulent spirit, Socialism having made huge strides among them, and threatening to occasion serious difficulties in the future. But, as a whole, Belgium is an eminently pleasant country, though not so clean as Holland.

The following old monkish lines give a somewhat apt description of some characteristics of the chief Belgian cities:—

“Brussels rejoices in noble men, Antwerp in money, Ghent in halters, Bruges in pretty girls, Louvain in learned men, and Malines in fools.” The allusion in the case of Ghent, is to the frequent humiliations to which it was subjected by its sovereigns, for turbulence and disaffection; while Malines obtained its unenviable reputation because, it is said, its people once mistook the moon shining through the cathedral tower for a conflagration, and endeavoured to put it out with the fire-engines.

It must not be forgotten that many cities of Belgium are monuments of departed rather than present glories.

Bruges, for instance, a very extensive city, has now not many more than forty thousand inhabitants, of whom one-third are said to be paupers. In the fourteenth century it was the commercial centre of

Europe. Privileged trading companies from seventeen different kingdoms had factories there; twenty foreign ministers resided within its walls. Lombards and Venetians brought to it the merchandise of Italy and the Indies, and carried thence the manufactures of England and Germany. In 1301, when Philip the Handsome, of Burgundy, visited Bruges, his wife exclaimed, on seeing the costumes of the people, “I imagined myself alone to be queen, but I see here hundreds of persons whose attire vies with my own.”



A WEDDING PROCESSION IN ANTIQUR.

Ypres, now reduced to 15,000, had 200,000 inhabitants in the fourteenth century, and 4,000 looms were at work **Ypres and** there. Ghent has had a more striking history **Ghent.** even than Brussels, having early asserted its independent rights against the Counts of Flanders and Dukes of Burgundy. Whenever these princes endeavoured to levy an unpopular tax, the people of Ghent sounded an alarm-bell, flew to arms, and expelled the officials sent for the taxes. Jacques van Artevelde, the **The Brewer** Brewer of Ghent (1290-1345), is a typical **of Ghent.** figure at Ghent, which he ruled almost despotically for seven years. His son, Philip van Artevelde, carried on his projects for some years with great success, but at last was defeated and slain, and his city had to submit once more to the Count of Flanders. Later the Ghenters waged war single-handed against Philip le Bon of Burgundy, but being defeated, the corporation and principal citizens had to march out at the gate with halters round their neck, and kiss the dust at the feet of their conqueror.

Liège may be regarded as the capital of the Walloon district. It has flourishing manufactures of weapons, **Manufactures** guns, and locomotive and other steam engines; **of Liège.** and this industry, with the adjacent coal-mines, seems to have given a peculiar cast to the people's character. They are certainly active, intelligent, and enterprising; but they have often shown a fierce and implacable **The Bishops** spirit when excited to hostility against rulers. **of Liège.** The Bishops of Liège, who were powerful and oppressive temporal rulers, often were the objects of violent uprisings of the populace; but it was not till after the French Revolution that the power of the Bishops was finally destroyed.

Antwerp exhibits fully the opposite extremes to Liège, being specially a Flemish (that is, essentially a Dutch) city. It has undergone remarkable vicissitudes. When Bruges was declining, Antwerp became great, and rivalled **Vicissitudes** Venice. Its great fairs attracted merchants **of Antwerp.** from all quarters; and more than a thousand foreign commercial firms were established there in the

sixteenth century. In the latter part of that century, however, the terrible tyrannies of Spain ruined Antwerp; and the Dutch, in winning their independence, contributed to this, for they stipulated that no sea-going vessel should ascend to Antwerp. By 1790 the population had dwindled to 40,000. In 1794 the French took it,



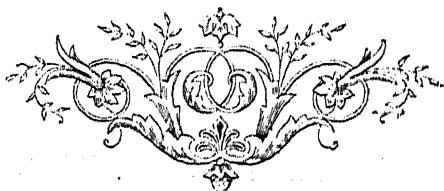
BELGIAN LACE-WEAVER.

and reopened the navigation of the Scheldt; but after 1814 Antwerp became part of the Netherlands kingdom, and revived by Dutch trade. During the throes of conflict by which Belgium was freed, Antwerp was again ruined, the Dutch having made a great stand there. It is scarcely twenty-five years since Antwerp took a fresh

start; but the city has since grown with enormous rapidity, and is now the first port in Europe, as well as one of the strongest fortresses.

The architectural features of Belgium are most interesting, not only because of the great Gothic cathedrals of Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Malines, etc., but because of the remarkable buildings which the municipalities, as well as wealthy commercial firms and guilds, formerly constructed. The Hôtel de Ville of Brussels is a sample. The belfries are scarcely less important, as at Bruges, Tournai, and Ghent, having been erected for the purpose of mustering the citizens rapidly in case of an enemy's approach, or of alarm of fire.

The art of Belgium can scarcely be said to equal that of Holland, although the name of Rubens would of itself place any school in the first rank. After him Teniers must rank next, for Van Dyck early became practically an English painter.





CHAPTER XII.

The Swiss.

Lake dwellers of Switzerland—Early arts and agriculture—The Helvetii—Roman conquest—Teuton invasion—The Franks—Walled cities—The House of Hapsburg—The Swiss Confederation—Battle of Sempach—Swiss mercenary soldiers—Independence of Switzerland—The Reformation and Calvin—Helvetic Republic—Modern federal constitution—A mixed nation—Divided in religion—Switzerland the playground of Europe—Pastoral habits—Important manufactures—Combination of industries with farming—Care for Schools—Swiss guides, waiters, and servants—Village communities—Romansch, or Ladin language.



ALTHOUGH Switzerland has been a nation a shorter time than any we have dealt with except Belgium, we know something of its inhabitants in the pre-historic period. Cave-dwellers existed, showing the same character as

in France and England. It has been discovered that the margins of the lakes were very early used for the construction of dwellings raised on poles, and that their

builders were considerably advanced in knowledge and civilisation. The remains dug up from the mud around **Lake-dwellers** and under these villages show that the early of Switzerland people had numerous domestic animals, ate most of our fruits, and possessed woven cloth, and lines and nets for fishing. They could make pottery; but their implements were limited to stone, bone, and horn, which they fixed in wooden handles. They evidently **Early arts and agriculture.** were cultivators of the soil; and from the plants they cultivated, it appears probable that they were an Aryan race, who had brought with them from the East many characteristic productions. The use of these pile-dwellings continued on into the bronze and iron ages, and they show the same transitions as in other localities. These ancient remains have been found in lakes Zurich, Geneva, Neuchatel, and others.

The earliest inhabitants of Switzerland of whom an historical account remains, are the Helvetii, who were Celts, and who joined the Cimbri in their attacks on the Gauls; and the Rhætians, who are supposed to have been allied to the Etruscans. The Romans **Roman conquest.** conquered both; and their land became the province Helvetia. Roman rule brought its usual consequences—order, roads, and trade; and many men of Latin blood and speech settled among and inter-married with the natives. In the fourth and fifth centuries, however, the north-eastern hordes of Teutons and **Teuton invasion.** others swarmed over Helvetia, destroying Roman rule. The Alemanni occupied the eastern portion, the Goths the southern, and the Burgundians settled in the Jura, round Lake Geneva, and in the lower Valais.

The Franks. Later, the Franks conquered the whole land, and introduced the feudal system. After the death of Charlemagne, Western Switzerland formed part of the kingdom of Burgundy; while the eastern portion, known as Rhætia, was united to Suabia. Still later, Switzerland broke up into a number of petty States, which retained the old Teutonic habit of uniting when danger threatened them from outside. When the Hungarians ravaged Switzerland, the Emperor, Henry I. (the

Fowler), built walls round a number of Swiss cities, which thus were enabled to rise to power; and, growing stronger, they in many cases ^{Walled cities.} bought or won their emancipation from their immediate feudal chiefs.

In 1273 Rudolf of Hapsburg, who had great possessions and influence in Schwytz and Aar, became ^{The House of} Emperor of Germany; but his son, Albert, who ^{Hapsburg.} succeeded him, alienated the Swiss; and his tyranny



Lucerne.

Neuenburg.

Aarau.

Schwytz.

Wadlland.

SWISS PEASANT WOMEN.

caused the formation of the famous Swiss Confederation in 1315. The patriots, Werner Stauffacher, of Schwytz; Walter Furst, of Uri; and Arnold Melchthal, of Unterwalden, deserve honour in every record of Swiss history. At the battle of Morgarten ^{The Swiss Confederation.} they routed the Imperial forces. In succeeding years one canton after another joined the confederates; and by 1353 eight cantons were in union, including Berne,



SWISS SCENE.
160

Lucerne, and Zurich. In 1386 the famous battle of Sempach again maintained Swiss liberty; but yet a good deal of Switzerland remained under Austrian or other despotic power. Finally, in 1467, the last possessions of the House of Hapsburg in Switzerland were sold to the Swiss. Repeated conflicts had made the Swiss remarkably good soldiers; and in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Swiss mercenaries were engaged by many a ruler to fight his battles for him. In 1499, after a series of defeats, the Emperor Maximilian fully acknowledged the independence of Switzerland; and for three centuries no further attempts were made against its liberties. In 1513 the nation consisted of thirteen cantons and various dependencies.

From military contests the Swiss turned to religious ones when the Reformation arose. The people of Zurich, Schaffhausen, Berne, Basle, and the Grisons were ardent followers of Calvin and Zwingli; while those of Uri, Schwytz, Unterwalden, etc., remained under the influence of Rome. Thus arose internal disputes, persecutions, and civil wars, which we cannot enter into. In 1797-8 the French Republicans were able to impose their will on the Swiss, and established the Helvetic Republic, making the cantons mere departments instead of independent States. The French connection caused Switzerland great misery, especially as the country became the scene of war between France and her enemies. From 1803 to 1814 Switzerland, however, enjoyed peace and prospered. In 1815, a new federal compact was drawn up; and twenty-two cantons, including some which the French had appropriated, joined in it. In 1830 new constitutions established a condition of great equality and freedom throughout Switzerland, with great variety of details in different cantons.

The Swiss are a yet more mixed nation than the surrounding peoples. They are a mixture of mixtures, and did not begin to be a people until the adjacent nations had very largely taken form.

In 1880, out of 2,846,102 people, 2,030,792 spoke German, 608,007 French, 161,923 Italian, and 38,705 the South French or Romance dialect. Thus it is evident that the German is the preponderating element; but it is mostly ^{divided in} spoken in a special dialect, known as Swiss-^{religion.} German. Again, as to religion, division is equally apparent, for 1,667,107 were Protestants, 1,160,782



PEASANT GIRL: LAUSITZ.

Roman Catholics. Struggles for independence have united the nation; and the freedom they won long shone conspicuous amid surrounding tyranny. Fortunately for the preservation of their independence, they are surrounded by three peoples under half a dozen rulers (Italy, France, Baden, Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Austria), none of whom

Switzerland
the play-
ground of
Europe.

would willingly see any other in possession of Switzerland; while the peculiar value of Switzerland to all these nations, as a playground or health

resort, makes all inclined to regard it as a common meeting-ground, which shall not be quarrelled about.

It is the holiday aspect of Switzerland that excites most interest—Switzerland rather than the Swiss. Yet there is much that is attractive about the people. In the

^{Pastoral} winter the peasant dwells in the valleys and ^{habits.} plains, while in the summer he leads flocks and herds to mountain slopes; and vast quantities of cheese

and butter are manufactured, to say nothing of Swiss condensed milk. In the warmer valleys the vine is largely cultivated. The abundance of water power has developed considerable manufactures, especially of silk and cotton; the former in St. Gall and Basle, the latter chiefly in Zurich. Swiss watches and jewellery are known the world over. Probably the rise of the industry was favoured by the isolation and necessary confinement to home in the long winters. Pill-boxes, wooden pipes, spectacles, are among the flourishing manufactures of Switzerland. Very much of the prosperity of the country is due to the combination in each family of one or more small technical industries with farming. This success under unpromising conditions is a strong testimony to the value of the religion and education to which the Swiss have long attached great importance. The school is to the Swiss the most important local institution. Every care is bestowed on its perfection, and on securing the diligent attendance of the children; and it is free to all. As a consequence, pauperism is almost unknown in Switzerland. The Universities of Basle, Berne, Geneva,

Important
manufac-
tures.



PEASANTS OF ANDERMATT.

Care for
schools.

and Zurich have a fame extending far beyond the country.

Of course the well-to-do condition of the country now-a-days is largely owing to the crowds of foreigners who visit it for recreation. These supply the gilding to the life of many an industrious worker, as well as to many a drone who does not earn or deserve much. But many Swiss,—now that the profession of hired soldier is no longer at a premium,—



SWISS COURTSHIP.

become the hired waiters and servants of foreigners, returning home again in many cases with their store of gains to settle in their native valley.

The old Teutonic system of village communities survives in Switzerland in a most simple form, though the village communities. Every canton and the republic are superadded. Every Switzer is supposed to be a member of some commune, and in many parts still he never thinks of

quitting it; and inter-marriage, leading to degeneracy and extinction, has been the rule till recently.

Several districts in Eastern and South-eastern Switzerland—the northern Grisons, the Engadine, etc.—still preserve languages variously known as Romansch or Ladin (*i.e.*, Latin). The people are probably descendants of the old Rhætians, mingled with their Roman conquerors. But these languages, distinct and interesting as they are, are steadily getting supplanted by German and Italian.

Romansch,
or Ladin
language.





CHAPTER XIII.

The Scandinavians.

The Island of the Scands—The Lapps and Finns—Teutonic settlement—Roman influence—Runic inscriptions—The Scandinavian vikings—Wide-spread predatory expeditions—Piracy a part of a viking's education—Eorls, churls, and kings—Late introduction of Christianity—Scandinavian kingdom—Sweden freed by Gustavus Vasa—Gustavus Adolphus—Battle of Lützen—Queen Christina—Charles XII.—Conquests by Russia—The French dynasty—Reunion with Norway—Dual kingdom—Reforms in Sweden—Long-continued emigration—Fair type mixed with dark—Egotism of Scandinavians—Hospitality, home affection, and piety of Norwegians—Variety of occupation—Norway democratic—Sweden aristocratic—Inferior position of Swedish women—Intemperance—Manner of life—Mines and manufactures—Fishes—Education—Linnæus—Swedish literature—Norwegian literature.



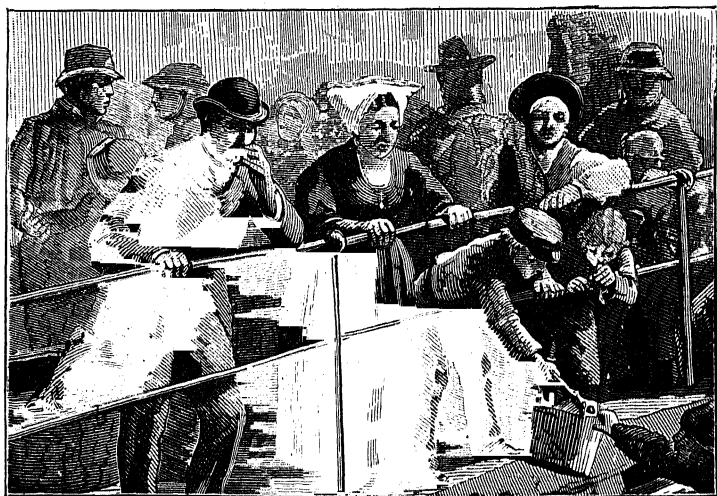
MILKING THE REINDEER, LAPLAND.

SCANDINAVIA is an old name, first occurring in the elder Pliny's writings. He believed it to be a great island. It meant the island of the Scands, a tribe settled in the south of the peninsula.

In this country we come upon a race of non-

Aryans, belonging to the Mongoloid group of peoples,

namely the Lapps and Finns. But they occupy chiefly the northern tracts, and must be dealt with separately. Even before the dawn of history Aryans of Teutonic race had settled in the peninsula, and gradually overspread it, extending from the coasts of Sweden, round the lakes, and then to the coasts and valleys of Norway. Although the Romans never reached Scandinavia, their influence did, for many Roman coins of the second century have been found in Sweden. Amber was



ON THE PIER AT BERGEN.

carried to Rome from Scandinavia, and later, both amber and furs reached Constantinople; and the Byzantine coins paid for them have been found in Gotland and Oland.

There is remarkable interest in the inscriptions known as "runic," which date from about 300 to 500 A.D., and which were inscribed on jewels, weapons, im-
 plements, and even stones. The longest of these contains only sixteen words; but the runic inscriptions have a special value as being the oldest actual records of any Teutonic tongue. It is most nearly related

to the old Gothic. There are later runic inscriptions,



SCANDINAVIANS.

in which the characters are similar to those employed in the earlier manuscripts.

It is not till the end of the eighth century that the Scandinavian vikings began to be famous in European history. They issued from the south of Scandinavia, in their long rowing boats, and swarmed on all

accessible coasts, even reaching Spain, Italy, and Greece.

The vikings. At first they only plundered and carried off spoil; later, they began to settle where they found plenty. They made settlements, not only in England, the Orkneys and Shetlands, Hebrides, Isle of Man, Ireland, and the north of France; but they

Predatory expeditions. also established themselves as far within what we know as Russia, as Novgorod and Kief. In fact, it is probably from these wanderers that the name of Russia is derived. They were "rothsmen" or rowers, Scandinavian vikings. Even Constantinople was twice attacked by the Northmen with their terrible



RUNIC RING FOUND IN NORWAY.

battle-axes, and later they were induced to enter the Byzantine emperor's service as an imperial body-guard.

The old view of the vikings as terrible barbarians, with no good qualities, is of course natural enough, when we consider how sorely people had suffered from them. They in fact were clansmen, desperately attached to their clan and their chief, ever seeking to revenge a brother's or a friend's death, and choosing a violent death. It was part of a man's education to be a pirate; but as time went on, the men who had sufficiently distinguished themselves in that line of life, and brought home plenty of booty, would settle down peacefully at home. There was much domestic life and agriculture too in the time of the vikings, or there would have been no population from which they could be supplied. The religious beliefs and practices of the Norsemen we cannot here dilate upon. They worshipped natural powers personified and heroes deified, especially Odin, the god of war.

Old Scandinavian society was broadly divided into two divisions, the eorls or chiefs, and the churls or men. Later a king was elected, especially for war; Eorls, churls, and each kingdom had its own assembly, its "thing" or "moot," to make laws and transact other business. There was also a class of thralls or slaves, with no rights.

Gradually the smaller kingdoms were united into the kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Christianity was introduced as late as the tenth and eleventh centuries. Thus Scandinavia affords us one of the latest instances of the persistence of heathendom among Aryan peoples. As late as the eleventh century strong efforts were made to restore the old religious customs; but they failed, and then began the northern crusades, which savagely tried to force Christianity on the Finns and Esthonians round the Baltic, who still kept up piratical habits. After a long period of division and internal troubles, Norway and Sweden were united under one king, Magnus, in 1319. During the preceding period the relations between Nor-

way and Denmark and England had been frequent and Scandinavian important. In 1397 the crowns of Sweden, kingdom. Denmark, and Norway were united in the person of Eric; and Norway remained with Denmark till the present century, not being reunited to Sweden till 1814.

Meanwhile, Sweden had been from the first restive under the union; and long struggles ensued between the Gustavus Swedes and their Danish rulers. At last the Vasa. liberation of Sweden was accomplished by Gustaf Eriksson, better known as Gustavus Vasa, who, after driving out the Danes by a series of heroic struggles, was crowned king in 1523. He also adopted the Lutheran doctrines of religion, and introduced them into Sweden; the Romish bishops being deprived of their power in 1527. After his death, in 1560, the country was

Gustavus continually engaged in internal conflicts or Adolphus. with Denmark. Gustavus Adolphus, who became king in 1611, was the other great king of Sweden. He first defeated Russia, and conquered all their Baltic possessions, and made further large conquests from Poland and Germany. But at last Wallenstein encountered him

Battle of at Lützen, in 1632, and, although the Swedes Lützen. won, their king was killed. During his daughter Christina's infancy, the cause of Sweden prospered in Europe, and secured liberty of conscience for Protestants;

Queen and Sweden held the mouths of the Oder and Christina. the Vistula, as well as West Pomerania. After an intervening period of dissensions and decay, Sweden was once more restored to an important place in Europe by the warlike genius of Charles XII. He

Charles XII. however wasted his energies in foreign enterprises, in Poland, Russia, and Turkey, defeating the Russians at Narva in 1700, but sustaining, among others,

Conquests the disastrous defeat of Pultowa, in 1709. by Russia. When compelled to return home to defend his country against the Russians and Danes, he was at last killed in storming a Norwegian town, in 1718. His death was followed by internal dissensions in Sweden, and continual conquests on the east of the Baltic by the Russians.



THE WOMAN IN THE MOUNTAINS.

In the wars of the French Revolution, Sweden attempted to be neutral, but was forced by England to **The French** take a part against France, which led to **dynasty.** further losses, and finally to the acceptance of Marshal Bernadotte as crown prince and then king of Sweden. Forced again to act against France, Sweden thereby gained back Norway from Denmark in 1814.

Norway had always cherished more republican ideas than Sweden, and was successful in asserting its position

Dual as a separate and not an annexed kingdom. **kingdom.** The Norwegians abolished titles of nobility, restricted greatly the prerogatives of the Crown, and insisted successfully on the appointment of Norwegians,

Reforms in and not Swedes, to Norwegian offices. These **Sweden.** struggles were not without a reflex influence on Sweden, in which many reforms were supported by enlightened kings, who in numerous ways have promoted the prosperity of the two countries, and kept them out of many dangers of foreign complications.

The chief cause of the marked differences between the Scandinavians of the past and of the present is the long-continued drain of the hardiest spirits, who **Emigration.** either settled or died in foreign lands. Thus Northmen supplied their best blood to Normandy, Great Britain, and the Mediterranean shores; and the country is the poorer to-day for their loss. Yet they possess at the present day many excellent qualities, although they have by no means the leaning to military fame and discipline of their German relatives. Emigration continues to prevent great increase of their numbers.

The fair, tall, flaxen-haired type of Scandinavian is **Fair type** still predominant in numbers; but there is not **mixed with** wanting considerable intermixture of a darker **dark.** type, indicating the presence of Lapp or Finn blood. The Scandinavians, as a rule, are not merely

Egotism. patriotic but overweeningly egotistic about their country, and unduly censorious of other countries. The Norwegians even think Christiania equal to any other capital; while the Swedes, it must be allowed, have more reason for thinking highly of Stockholm.

The Norwegians are of an abundantly hospitable nature. In the rural districts there is an amount of gentlemanly feeling, even among the peasants, which puts our agri-



NORWEGIAN FARMER.

cultural natives into the shade. Their hospitality is equally marked, whether it be shown to strangers or to

neighbours. This indicates also what is the case, that **Hospitality,** the home affections are most carefully cultivated. Piety is simple and unaffected, and as **home affection,** a consequence there is a comparatively great **piety of** absence of crime in Norway. **Norwegians.**

Another characteristic of the Norwegian peasant and farmer, is the facility with which he can turn to all kinds of avocations. "When one wants to build a house, or **Variety of** make any addition to his farm, he goes to the **occupation.** forest and cuts the trees, and is his own carpenter. He may also be a tanner, harness-maker, blacksmith, shoemaker, and miller; along the coast, he can build boats and ships, and is an expert fisherman. As a hunter in the mountains, he pursues the bear, the wild reindeer, or the ptarmigan."

Norway is decidedly the more democratic of the two linked kingdoms. All titles of nobility have been abolished there; but they are still retained in **Norway** democratic. Sweden, where the nobility form a very considerable portion of the population, as the titles descend to all children; but their monetary position is by no **Sweden** means always on a par with their noble title.

aristocratic. The peasantry, and even the farming class, retain very largely a feeling of inferiority in position to the aristocracy; and the boundaries between the classes are rather sharply drawn. The poorer classes of Sweden are in a very low state; and this lot is shared perhaps

Inferior position of Swedish women.

rather unfairly among the sexes, for a very heavy amount of hard labour is laid upon the women. In Stockholm they are employed as bricklayers' labourers, and shoulder the hod in a manner which ought to shame the Swedish men. They are even occupied as street sweepers, in loading and dragging carts, in rowing boats, and in many other occupations of a rough and menial kind. Yet the Swedes plume themselves on being a highly polite nation—the French of the North, in fact. But it is a fact, that with the French dynasty a good deal of French frivolity, fashion, and even vice came in.

But unfortunately a very serious national vice is of

home growth, and dates from the old viking times. Strong drink is too largely indulged in in Scandinavia. Norway has made valiant efforts of late years to stem the evil, and has hit upon what is ^{Intemperance.} known as the Gothenburg system, whereby the municipality alone is entitled to sell intoxicating drinks, and places strict limits on the traffic. But in Sweden the amount of drinking is great, though without apparently so much drunkenness as in England. Yet on a Sunday, in the suburbs of Stockholm, frightful scenes may be witnessed. Riotous drinkers crowd the *cafés* and the roads, and night is made hideous with their howling. In this respect the Swedes leave much to be desired.

"The Swedes are not a very serious, or apparently a very religious nation," says a well-known writer. "They claim the reputation of being more civilised and refined, considerably in advance of the Norwegians; but if they gain in one way, they certainly lose in another. Both men and women often become abnormally stout, and their manner of living rather encourages such ^{Manner} a result. Before the chief meals of the day is ^{of life.} a sort of digestive prologue, called *smörgåsbord*. Knife or fork in one hand, a large piece of bread, or thin flat biscuit in the other, they circulate round a table groaning with small dainties. A fork is plunged into the anchovy jar, a small fish is captured, approved, disposed of, and a second succeeds it. This is followed by other dainties. A wineglass or two of the neat spirit of the country, nauseous and unwholesome, brings this preliminary repast to a conclusion. Seats are then taken at the general table, and the heavier meal commences."

The mining industries of Norway and Sweden are of great importance, and give a decided tone to the inhabitants of the mining districts. Swedish ^{Mines and} iron and steel are famous throughout the ^{manufactures.} world, having been carefully smelted by charcoal fires. If the forests near the iron works should become exhausted, as is feared, it would be a great disaster for the country. The Swedish mines are chiefly in Dalecarlia; those of Norway in the South, principally in Thelemark.

The celebrated copper mines of Falun have been worked



SWEDISH FISHER MAIDEN.

for at least six centuries. Matches must by no means be

omitted among the important manufactures of Scandinavia. At Jönköping more than a thousand hands are employed in this industry. The fisheries of Norway are remarkable in many ways, especially those of cod and herring. The Lofoden islands cod fisheries, from February till May, are extensive enough to temporarily people districts otherwise barren. In 1881 there were 26,850 men in 6,153 boats engaged in this fishery.

In education both Norway and Sweden have long taken an advanced position. Probably the spread of intellectual culture among comparatively poor persons and in remote districts can only be paralleled in Germany. The University of Upsala has a notable record of four centuries. In the last century a Swede, Linnaeus, rendered immortal service to science; and the scientific fame of Scandinavia has been kept up by the eminent labours of Berzelius the chemist, Fries and Agardh the botanists, Sven Nilsson the antiquary, and Sars the zoologist. One Swedish novelist, Frederika Bremer, has achieved a European reputation; while Swedenborg, the mystic and visionary religious teacher, has extended his influence widely beyond the European continent. Tegner is Sweden's greatest poet, known most by his romantic "Frithiof's Saga," and his "Children of the Lord's Supper," translated by Longfellow. Ling, another Swedish poet of mark, is better known as the father of Swedish gymnastics.

A distinctive Norwegian literature has arisen since the separation from Denmark. It had been foreshadowed by the notable poet and comic dramatist Holberg, who however lived most of his life in Copenhagen; and is now worthily represented by the novelists and poets, Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson, and Ibsen, who have won fame far beyond the boundaries of their native country.



CHAPTER XIV.

The Danes and Icelanders.

Danish relations with Germans—Refuse-heaps of early Danes—Gothic settlements—Tribes united—Sweyn and Canute—Christianity adopted late—Danish tolls in Baltic—Scandinavian union till 1523—Contests between Sweden and Denmark—British interference—Severance from Norway—Loss of Schleswig and Holstein—Physical characters of Danes—Farming, the staple industry—Gaiety and egotism—Spirit-drinking and suicide—Influence of aristocracy—Education and literature—Andersen—Thorwaldsen—The Icelanders—Ultima Thule—Early discovery by Scandinavians—The old Commonwealth—Norwegian and Danish dominion—Prosperity diminished after annexation—Description of Icelanders—Peculiar grade of civilisation—Calamities of Iceland—The Sagas and Eddas—Home education—Rejkjavik College—Industries.



THE Danes are intimately connected in history and race with the rest of the Scandinavians; but, owing to their being adjacent to the Germans proper, and being long united under the same ruler with German provinces, they show considerable resemblances to the North Germans. The earliest inhabitants of Den-

Danish
relations
with
Germans.

mark that we know of have left vast refuse-heaps of shells, and bones of fishes, birds, and other animals, close to the sea-shore. The bones indicate the hunter, fowler, and fisherman, rather than the farmer. It appears that they belong to the

Refuse-heaps
of early
Danes.

Neolithic or polished stone period. The succeeding bronze age, as in Scandinavia generally, persisted quite up to the Christian era. The implements and ornaments which remain from that time are of excellent workmanship and considerable beauty and variety.

Goths no doubt early settled in Jutland; and the large island of Gotland in the Baltic was named from them. In early times the people were divided, like the rest of the Teutons, into small tribes, which gradually became united under kings. Later, one strong kingdom of Denmark was formed, and became a formidable



DANES.

able rival to that of England, which it conquered and ruled for a time. The names of Sweyn and Canute recall to us the days when Denmark gave kings to Sweyn and England; in these last days she has given us Canute. a princess of gentler mould and nobler deed than they.

Feudalism was introduced into Denmark after the introduction of Christianity, which was slow and late in gaining predominance. In the thirteenth century Denmark controlled a large part of North Germany. The growing importance of commercial towns in and near the Baltic, tempted Denmark to claim tolls from their merchandise; and again and again Denmark met with stern

opposition from the Hanse towns. In 1397 the three Scandinavian kingdoms became one, as we have already narrated. The union lasted till 1523, when Sweden broke away. At this period piratical habits still persisted in Denmark, and wrecking was frequent.

The Reformation made early and rapid progress in Denmark. The seventeenth century witnessed frequent

Contests
between
Sweden and
Denmark.

contests between Sweden and Denmark, with a result of considerable loss to the latter. The most important events in which Denmark was connected with this country were when Parker and Nelson bombarded Copenhagen, in 1801; and when, in 1807, the Danish fleet was seized by a British expedition. It was the action taken by the Danes against British interests that led to the severance of Norway from

Denmark in 1814. Denmark, thus shorn of power, could play but a small part in politics thenceforth; but since that period she has had to submit to still further losses, in the shape of Schleswig and Holstein, which, racially belonging to Germany, had, it

Loss of
Schleswig
and Holstein.

must be confessed, been neglected and illtreated by the Danish kings. The courage with which the Danes fought against the arbitrary severance by Prussia and Austria in 1864 will long be remembered. Prussia, with characteristic tenacity, has contrived to keep for herself what she then co-operated with others in abstracting. But Denmark, thus reduced, has prospered.

The Danes have the characteristic Teutonic fair hair and blue eyes, are of medium stature, and are distinctly

Physical
characters
of Danes.

akin to the taller people of Norway and Sweden. But their characteristics are greatly influenced by the fact that their one staple occupation is farming, which prevents the development of great varieties

Farming.

among them, and tends to favour stability and independence of character. Whether it is due to the liveliness associated with old piratical habits or not,

Gaiety and
egotism.

the Dane is not like the German in solidity and stolidity, but displays a charming gaiety of disposition, and a tendency to French habits and fashions.

It is true that the Dane shares to a considerable extent



DANISH WOMEN.

the egotism of the Scandinavians. But it must be related

that spirit-drinking has of late increased enormously in the country, attended with a very large development of suicidal tendency. In a great number of families it is the custom to drink spirit with every meal.

Notwithstanding the strong efforts that have been made in modern times to establish a democratic government in Denmark, the aristocracy still retain great social

Influence of aristocracy. influence and consideration. Titles descend to all children, and ensure a position above the wealthiest citizen. The agricultural population are remarkably contented, and have good reason to be so; for they either hold small freehold estates or hold their land on leases for two lives. All the members of the family usually work on their holding, and seldom seek to change their station.

In no respect is Denmark more advanced than in education and learning. The schools are remarkably good, being under the control of the celebrated University of Copenhagen. Learning is honoured, and men of letters and science, and artists, enjoy an enviable position. Among great writers of comedy, Denmark can boast Holberg; among poets, Oehlenschläger.

Andersen. Andersen, the unsurpassed modern fabulist, was a Dane; so too were Rask and Madvig the philologists, Oersted the electrical inventor, and Worsaae the antiquary. In sculpture, Denmark is raised to the topmost height by **Thorwaldsen.** Thorwaldsen; the museum containing his works at Copenhagen is such a record as no other modern sculptor has left behind him. In recent years a Danish musician, Niels Gade, has succeeded in gaining a hearing for his works all over Europe.

THE ICELANDERS.

Iceland, which lays very strong claim to being the real Ultima Thule of the ancients, is still a dependency of Denmark, though fortunately governed with far more liberality than formerly. It is an island of extraordinary physical features, with its vol-

canoes, its glaciers, its torrent-like rivers, its closed lakes, its hot streams, its geysers, its cold winters. The Scandinavians found out Iceland more than a thousand years ago; but there was a further settlement of Welsh, Irish, and Hebridean colonists after them. Christianity was introduced about A.D. 1000. A number of chiefs at first governed, each his own followers. Later, a commonwealth, with a national assembly, or Althing, was constituted, and continued to rule until the thirteenth century, when some of the chiefs quarrelled, and, after long struggles, called in the King of Norway, who annexed the island in 1262. In 1380, when the King of Denmark became also king of Norway, Iceland became the appanage of Denmark, which it has ever since remained.

Early
discovery by
Scandina-
vians.

The old Com-
monwealth.

Norwegian
and Danish
dominion.

The period of the old commonwealth was a much more prosperous one for Iceland than the long and dreary connection with the continent. The Reformation introduced Lutheranism, which has remained the religion of the people. Pirates, small-pox, famines, and volcanic eruptions have in succession harassed and more than decimated the people. But under a new constitution things have greatly improved.

Prosperity
diminished.

There is no proof of pre-Aryan colonisation of Iceland; and the Icelander may be looked upon as a nearly pure Scandinavian, with a slight Irish admixture. The old Saga description of Gunnar Hammondsson is, says Sir R. F. Burton, that of a well-favoured Icelander in the present day. "He was handsome of feature and fair-skinned; his nose was straight, and a little turned up at the end; he was blue-eyed and bright-eyed and ruddy-cheeked; his hair was thick and of good hue, and hanging down in comely curls." The eyes are usually hard and cold, which indicates something harsh in the temperament. The teeth, however, are good and lasting. The women have specially thick heads of hair. Their figures, however, are not graceful; and both sexes are sturdy and massive in form, flat-footed, ponderous in walk, with a shambling, un-

Description
of
Icelanders.

graceful gait. There is much intermarriage among the people, who are at present increasing considerably, numbering over 70,000.

The grade of civilisation attained is a curious mixture of the advanced and the backward. Household comforts

Peculiar grade of civilisation. are very primitive; cleanliness is not much in favour; ventilation scarcely exists; yet there is a great degree of general intelligence and information. In character the Icelanders much resemble



ICELANDIC PROFILES.

the other Scandinavians, with certain insular peculiarities. They are truthful, but distrustful; calm and stolid; conservative, clinging to old customs; fond of debates about trifles; satirical; courageous, but somewhat given to vice, and by no means free from serious crimes.

Iceland has suffered so much from many **Calamities of Iceland.** calamities, and is so comparatively poor, that the most wealthy would not rank above our lower middle class.

Even the clergy have

had to eke out their scanty incomes as farmers and labourers.

Yet this little community, in the days of its aristocratic commonwealth, had a distinctive and worthy literature.

The Sagas and Eddas. During the great period from the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries, the Sagas, the prose stories of the lives of heroes, were composed, of which not more than forty remain. The Eddas are a considerable body of poetical writings of the same period. Snorri (1178-1241) is the most notable Icelandic poet.

The bulk of the people living in isolated farms or small settlements, schools did not exist till lately, all instruction being given by parents. So efficient was this, that every child could read. A few schools have now been started, and there is a college on a small scale at Rejkjavik. But Iceland is

Home
education.
Rejkjavik
College.



ICELANDIC LADY IN FULL DRESS.

much in need of some new life. The deposits of sulphur in the island, if properly worked, might support a population several times more than the present; but capital, science, and new blood are wanted. At present, outdoor occupations afford almost the sole industries; and fishing and farming cannot be carried on during several months of the year.

The modern Icelanders have a decided tendency to emigrate, especially to the United States, where, in various communities in Michigan, Wisconsin, **Emigration.** Minnesota, etc., they may be met with, still preserving their language and traditions.





CHAPTER XV.

The Russians.

Panslavism—Idea of future Slavonic empire—Slavonians border on East and West—Difference from other Aryans—Early Slavs conquered by Varangians—Great, Little, and White Russia—Mongol-Tartar Domination—Tartar yoke thrown off—Romanoff dynasty—Partition of Poland—The Polish Slavs or Lechs—Polish kingdom—The Lithuanians—Long-persistent paganism—Kingdom of Lithuania—Character of Lithuanians—The Russian noble—The Russian official—National dress—Russian priests—Images—Russian Churches—Russian piety—Village communities—Difficulties of Russian peasants—Disadvantages of freedom—The Russian usurer—New forms of bondage—The Czar the sole source of distinction—Revolutionism—Russian literature—The Cossacks—Frontier warriors—Partial independence—The Lapps and Finns—Finno-Ugrian group of Mongoloids—Physical characters—Partial independence of Finland—Moral characteristics.



RUSSIAN.

PANSLAVISM is a phrase of the time, and signifies much to the Slavs. Some people would persuade us that it is a mere product of university or theoretic study—a partial or local feeling, by no means shared by the many millions of Slavs who own allegiance to the Czar. Some Panslavism. regard it as only a form of the turbulence, the love of revolution, the ardour for conflict, which characterise many Slavs. But the enthusiasm with which the last Russo-Turkish war was taken up, the readiness of the Russians to make great

taken up, the readiness

sacrifices for national causes, should prove that there is a feeling deeper than turbulence which tends to unite all Slavs, just as it is a feeling deeper than unity of language which knits Australians to Britons, and keeps the peace between the United States and Great Britain. An idea has grown up among the Slavs of a future greater empire which shall include all members of the Slavonian race, and which shall dominate Eastern and South-eastern Europe. Divided though they now are under different rulers, it has only



ST. PETERSBURG CROWD.

been by vigorous efforts that the non-Russian Slavs have been more or less assimilated in some cases to their conquerors, and in others are retained in tolerable peaceableness under their rule. Through the long series of changes, conquests, advances, and retreats which have crowded the history of the race, a remarkable unity of feeling and instinct has been preserved among them; so that the Austrian emperors dread the spread of Panslavism more than any other danger to which they are exposed. What the future history of the Slavs will be, no man can tell; but, judging from the past, one would say that, unlikely

as it may now appear, they are destined to be united at some time under one government.

The Slavonians in many ways present an interesting type, inasmuch as they, more than any other race, form a transition to the truly Oriental races. They come in contact equally with Eastern and Western nations; but they have an ineradicable hostility to Western ideas and races. They are not merely Oriental Aryans, but they include a large mixture of Mongoloid blood, and the remains of some of the most primitive races. Thus the Slavs fully merit the distinction of being marked out as a primary group or variety of the Aryans, contrasting with the whole of the Western Europeans. Their somewhat swarthy complexion, rather dark hair, small eyes, somewhat snub nose, and medium stature distinguish them pretty plainly.

Aryans though they are, the Slavonic peoples differ very considerably from the Southern and Western members of that stock; and they came into Europe by quite a different and more northern route than the rest. North and east of the Black Sea, by the Caspian and Volga, they spread into Europe before the advent of Christianity; but it is impossible in a short space to give an idea of migrations and conquests which are only vaguely understood, and very imperfectly recorded. It was not till the ninth century that the Russians emerged into importance, being a comparatively small portion of the Eastern Slavs, who had sought the help of and been conquered by a Scandinavian tribe, the Varangians, who built a town where Old Ladoga now stands, and extended their rule to Novgorod, even then an important place; and later took possession of Kief, and began to threaten Constantinople. The very name of Russians is derived from their Scandinavian leaders; but they speedily became identified with their subjects in feeling; and from their contact with Constantinople and the efforts of Greek missionaries, they became converted, in the tenth century, to the Christianity of the Eastern Church. For a long time the Russian power was unsettled, now ad-

Slavonians
border
on East and
West.

Differences
from other
Aryans.

Early Slavs
conquered by
Varangians.

vancing in a south-eastern, south-western, or northern direction, now broken up into numerous principalities, among which those known as Great Russia, **Great, Little, and White Russia.** (Novgorod), Little Russia (Kief), and White Russia. Russia (Moscow), were most important, and now convulsed by internecine wars between the various States.

In the thirteenth century, most of the Russian principalities fell under the dominion of the Mongol Tartars, under descendants of Jenghiz Khan, the celebrated chief of the Mongol Empire. For about two hundred and fifty



RUSSIANS.

years Tartar domination was paramount, though a succession of Russian princes were placed at the head of the various States. A great portion of what we now know as South-east Russia was under the Tartars directly. At various times the Russians rose against their masters, but were again conquered. At the end of the fourteenth century the great conqueror, Tamerlane, took Moscow by assault. But the western Russian States had never come under Tartar rule, and became absorbed in the kingdom of Lithuania.

In the fifteenth century, the power of the Tartars had

broken up into several States; and it was at last possible for Ivan, Prince of Moscow (1462-1505), to throw off the Tartar yoke, and successfully invade their Tartar yoke territories, conquering Kazan, where he was thrown off. crowned in 1470. He further conquered Great Russia, subduing Novgorod, and greatly reducing its importance. Ivan IV. in the sixteenth century finally overthrew the



RUSSIAN ARMY RECRUITS.

Tartar empire, extended his power to the Caspian, and took Astrakan; but he lost a good deal of territory to the Swedes and Poles.

It was not till 1613 that the celebrated dynasty of the Romanoffs ascended the throne of Russia. Towards the end of the century, Peter the Great, after a long minority, successfully asserted himself, winning Azof from the Tartars, and then, after early defeats by Charles XII.,

conquering a large part of Sweden east of the Baltic, Romanoff and founding St. Petersburg on a portion of dynasty. the conquered territory. He fitly assumed the title of Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, still borne by the Czar. The reign of the Empress Catherine II., a German princess, who, after marrying a weak Czar, attained supreme power on his death, marks the next

Partition of Poland. great period of Russian advance. In her time much of Poland was gained by Russia, the northern side of the Black Sea became Russian, and Georgia was conquered. In 1809, Russia was further enlarged by the addition of Finland. In 1815, a considerable Polish territory, with Warsaw for capital, was made a new kingdom of Poland, with the Czar for its king. But this has since become an integral part of Russia, the use of the Russian language being enforced.

Poland was once as large as France and Spain together, extending widely from the Baltic to the Black Sea. The

The Polish Slavs, or Lechs. Poles seem to have formed the vanguard of the Slavonic immigration into Europe, taking possession of lands on the Oder and Vistula which

the Goths and other Teutons left in their progress westwards. They were known as Lechs, and their land got the name of Poland, or the plain. In the tenth century they became Christianised from Rome, and to some extent connected with the Roman or Western Empire. But their princes in the tenth and eleventh centuries ruled over Bohemia, Moravia, Lusatia, Silesia, Pomerania,

Polish kingdom. Prussia, part of Brandenburg, and Western Russia. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, Pomerania and Silesia were lost, and became part of the German Empire. After varying conquests from one another, the Lithuanian and Polish powers were joined in the kingdom of Poland at the beginning of the sixteenth century. But after this period the star of Poland began to wane, despite the heroic qualities of many of its rulers; and successive provinces were lost, and successive partitions of the kingdom between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, were made in the eighteenth century. The kingdom was extinguished in 1795, a pretence

merely being made of setting up a nominal kingdom of Poland under the Czar as king in 1815.

THE LITHUANIANS.

The origin of the Lithuanians, bordering on the south-east of the Baltic, is lost in mystery. They constitute a distinct branch of the Aryans; and their tongue is nearer to the primitive Aryan language than any that survives. It is stated that entire Sanscrit phrases are understood by the peasants on the banks of the Niemen; but their literature has never risen to any eminence. The race formerly exhibited three main divisions—Lithuanians, Letts, and Bo-russians, from whom the Prussians derive their name. They are remarkable for their

Long
long persistence ^{Long} persistent
in paganism, ^{paganism.}
not having embraced
Christianity till the four-
teenth century. At this
period the Lithuanians
became consolidated into
a strong State, which
conquered a good deal



WOMAN OF GREAT RUSSIA.

of Russian territory. At the beginning of the fifteenth century, Lithuania was a powerful State, ex- Kingdom of
tending even to Kief and the sea of Azof. Lithuania.
Afterwards Poland was united to Lithuania, and the
latter shared the fate of the former. Nearly all Lithuania
now forms part of the Russian empire, although a portion

is included in Prussia. There are now about three millions of Lithuanians, including two hundred thousand Borussians in Prussia.

The Lithuanians are very fair-haired and blue-eyed, with delicate skin. The women, though very hard | Character of worked, often have beautiful features and Lithuanians. figures. Drunkenness is very prevalent. The Russian Lithuanians are mostly Roman Catholics, the Prussian Protestants; but throughout they have retained very marked traces of their paganism. The old pagan divinities are frequently mentioned in their popular songs and in their common speech. There is a very considerable popular literature of folk-tales, fairy tales, and idyllic and lyric songs. They are not at all of a warlike character. Perchance the traits of gentleness which are very common in the German races are derived from the Lithuanian blood which flows in no inconsiderable quantity in their veins.

THE MODERN RUSSIANS

The idea of Western Europe as to Russians is chiefly derived from impressions of two kinds—from Russian nobles who travel, and from Russian diplomacy and warlike enterprise. The Russian noble, if unscrupulous, is The Russian polished and socially cultured, and has dis- noble. played singular skill in adopting the most advantageous and fascinating attractions of the West to his own nature. Thus he shines in any society, usually being at least as skilled in foreign languages as the people among whom he visits. There is evidently no indisposition nor any incapacity in the Russian noble to adopt the most civilised style; but yet we cannot say that the rougher elements are extinguished by the surface veneer. It is to be feared that cruelty and want of consideration of inferiors are by no means extinct among them; and the popular idea, "Scratch a Russian, and you find a Tartar," has some justification.

But these are not the true Russians; rather are they citizens of the world, who have given up country for enjoyment and luxury. A better idea of the Russian of

the upper circles can be gained by studying the official; and a worse type of official cannot be found. **The Russian** Unscrupulousness is characteristic of his pro- **official.** ceedings. He is under an absolute monarchy of the most uncompromising kind; entire subservience is his necessary attitude to those above him. Yet with this goes much untrustworthiness; readiness to act as spy, to procure his own advancement by another's fall. And with all this goes bribery and corruption to the most intense extent. The Russian official would hardly know himself without bribes. He grinds those below him and is servile to those above him.

Moscow is the great centre of the race, where the Russian, richly-bearded and long-haired, too **National** often unkempt, disorderly, and uncleanly, is in **dress.** full force. The national head-dress is a sort of cap, black or white, drawn down in front over the forehead close to the eyes. A huge loose greatcoat, reaching to the heels, covers the body: its colour is dark blue or brown. Great top-boots cover the legs to the knees. Furs are added according to fancy or possession, and are often worn through summer as well as winter, just as many Englishmen have a tendency to wear a surtout on all but really hot days. Of course the richer and travelled classes conform very largely to European custom; but military dress is much worn, for very many of the upper class are officers.

The priests of the Greek Church are conspicuous in any assembly of the Russians. They are much more carefully dressed, their hair neatly combed, and they always wear their priestly dress, and **Russian** **priests.** adorn it with dignity and composure. Their long flowing robes, their rosaries, and their staves, give them always an impressive appearance; and they have a powerful influence on their people. Churches are abundant, with little chapels at almost every street corner, rivalling in their numbers the public-houses of an English city. In Moscow there are images on "every wall, over every door, in the bazaars, at the exchange, in **Images.** every public office, in every shop or private house. Every

church, every chapel, every image, is beset with worshippers, very nearly from morning till night. There is no common labourer or artisan, no water-carrier or droski-driver, that will go past without unbonneting and crossing himself." Unlike the men of many other races, they are more religious than the women.

We cannot say much for their churches architecturally,



RUSSIAN PEASANTS AT HOME.

although there has been a lavish outlay of precious metals upon them. Gaudy they are at best, be-

Russian dizenized churches. with gold and jewels. Some of their shrines are entirely of silver, with many statuettes of pure gold. The priests' vestments are often decked with the most costly jewels.

There is undoubtedly a vast amount of simple unquestioning piety

among the Russians, of rather too ignorant a type to satisfy the English mind. Unlimited credulity, however, is combined with a certain real devoutness which is pathetic. The Czar is much looked up to by Russian piety and regard his subjects in a religious light, as father of for the Czar. his people and the only rightful ruler. "The earth of his fathers, Holy Russia the confraternity of all

the Russians under the sceptre of the Czar, the common faith, the relics of the saints, and the graves of his ancestors," these seem to absorb the full heart of many Russians.

The origin, nature, and persistence of the old Russian village communities, is a most interesting study. The Russian masses for centuries were mere serfs, without freedom to move from home, whose time and ^{village} bodies were their lord's, although they were ^{communities}. allowed to have the produce of certain fields for their



RUSSIAN WOMEN.

own keep. Nevertheless, they retained their village system of common rights, common duties, common responsibilities. And with the emancipation of the serf came the full responsibility of the "*mir*," or commune. The *mir* is responsible for the payments due to the State or to the former owners of the land allotted to the serfs. A very notable plan, which comes nearer to socialism than anything we find elsewhere in Europe, is that by which the allotment land is reallocated every three years. Of course every free peasant has a voice in the *mir*, and the

majority rules. It does not follow that it always rules justly; but Russia is not alone in that failing.

There is, however, not enough land for the Russian peasant in his present state of development. He has not capital enough to work the land fully by modern methods; he is, as a rule, too far from the great marts to gain the higher prices for his produce; and thus even a very moderate rate of multiplication is sufficient to overcrowd the land. At present there is a constant and large flow of Russian peasants to the towns. Although manufactures are not enormously abundant, yet they are sufficiently so to make life fairly remunerative to them. So, even in Russia, with its immense spaces of country, the towns are growing fast.

It appears an extremely strange and unlikely thing, but it is very questionable whether the Russian peasant is much better off now than he was before the abolition of serfdom. It is certain that he is not so much better off as was expected. It is unfortunately true that he is at present almost universally in debt and in great poverty. How this comes about is easily understood, when we learn that the ordinary peasant has to pay, in taxes of one kind and another, something like 45 per cent. of all his income, or nearly three days' work a week. Rent is very heavy, owing to the great competition among the numerous peasantry; it has risen three or four fold in twenty years. Indoor work is scanty, manufacturing work employs not more than a million hands in the country. With usurers pressing them on the one hand, and the tax-gatherer on the other, it is not surprising that revolutionary ideas spread.

The usurer is a very prominent figure in the Russian village. He is frequently a peasant who has scraped the Russian money together, and keeps his connection with the commune as a means of enforcing his claims. He is rapacious, hard, and unbending; and under his yoke the Russian peasant groans about as much as under the tax-gatherer.

A new form of bondage to the landowners has arisen

on the ruins of the old. The peasant being too frequently reduced to absolute want in the New form of winter, if he can succeed in getting a small bondage. advance from a landowner, signs a bond promising to



RUSSIAN LADY.

give his labour in the ensuing season or seasons whenever it may be required of him; and it is reckoned at the lowest rate, whereas his labour is pretty sure to be claimed

when wages are highest. The penalties imposed for non-fulfilment of these contracts are quite ruinous.

The Russian nobility, numerous as it is, has not the



RUSSIAN BRIDE AND ATTENDANT.

powerful influence in the country that might be supposed. The position of the Czar is so despotic, that he avows himself the sole source of distinction, and his service is the only position carrying any weight. Consequently

nearly every Russian of intelligence and means seeks to qualify himself for the Imperial service, and to forward the Imperial and national cause. The Czar the sole source of distinction. Strangely enough, ranks in the civil service are given precisely like those in the military service; and the civil servant is in an equally privileged position.

The honour and influence attached to the service of the State have a somewhat unnatural consequence, however, in producing disaffection. So many Revolutionism. youths specially educated for it are unable to gain posts under the Crown, that in default they become revolutionists, and have adopted peculiarly destructive and disastrous forms of secret conspiracy. From them it has spread to the younger students still in the Universities; until it has become an almost equivalent thing to be a student and to be suspected of nihilism. It must be confessed that there is good ground for the censures passed on the State in many ways.

In modern times Russian writers have adopted the forms and emulated the successes of Western Russian literature. European literature. The names of Kriloff the fabulist (1768-1844), Pushkin the poet (1799-1837), Gogol (1809-1852), Tourgenieff (1819-1883), and Tolstoi, the novelists, are the most conspicuous.

THE COSSACKS.

The Cossacks are another of the numerous races that own the sway of the Czar. They are even more mixed in race than the Russians proper. As frontier warlike tribes, they partake of the character of all the Frontier warriors. peoples with whom they have come in contact. As one expressive account says, Tartar tyranny exasperated a medley of refugees into making a stand on the Russian border. They kidnapped Tartar wives; they made forays against Turks wherever they could find them. They were ready to be an armed barrier for Christian Russia against the Moslem, if the Czars left them free to plunder, and allowed them self-government. The Cossacks of the Dnieper, who furnished history and romance with Mazeppa, were never thoroughly identified



COSSACKS CHARGING.

with Russia. They took the side of Poland at one time, then of Charles XII. of Sweden; and Peter the Great accomplished their subjugation. The Cossacks of the Don have many times asserted their independence of the Czar by violent rebellion, and were amongst the many victims of Ivan the Terrible. Their strength and their self-assertion are proved by the quasi-independence they still enjoy. They pay no direct taxes, and still hold their own legislative assemblies, which however are practically controlled from St. Petersburg. They have preserved the right to elect their own Ataman, or Hetman, who however is the Czarewitch, or heir-apparent to the Russian throne. The last investiture of a Czarewitch as Hetman took place in May, 1887, with great formality.

The Cossacks have long formed a most important branch of the Russian armies. Almost always provided with good horses, they have constituted a form of light cavalry which has done terrible execution, and determined the victory in not a few expeditions. Long ago they conquered Tartar dominions on the Ural mountains and in Siberia for the Russians. It is not to be expected, under these circumstances, that education should be very advanced among them; and many of them are not even in appearance members of the Greek Church, and profess Mahometanism, these being among the most respectable of them. Women do practically the whole work of the household, the Cossack himself being almost always military. Still they not unfrequently possess many cattle, sometimes questionably obtained; and sometimes they are really good farmers.

THE LAPPS AND FINNS.

Principally subject to Russia, but also inhabiting the northern parts of Norway and Sweden, are the Lapps or Finns. Their



LAPLANDER.

country is known as Lapland in the North, and Finland to the West of the Gulf of Bothnia. They also partly inhabit Esthonia and Livonia, south of the Gulf of Finland. Although associated in history so largely with the Scandinavian Teutons, they ^{Finno-Ugrian group of Mongoloids.} are most distinct in race; and their name of Finnish, or Finno-Ugrian, characterises a great western



FINNISH PEASANTS.

group of the Mongoloid division of races. There are numerous subordinate divisions, including the Volga Finns on both sides of the Volga. Like the Magyar, their languages are agglutinative and have a very harmonious sound.

Both Finns and Lapps are of low stature and have round heads, the Lapps being almost the roundest-headed

people in the world. Their low forehead and flat features



LAPLANDERS.

with prominent cheekbones, sparse beard, thick neck, thick lips, and fair, red or brown hair, and grey eyes characterise them very distinctively. Originally they were mainly hunters and fishermen, but have long since learnt agriculture and become owners of vast herds of reindeer. The Lapps still retain, however, some migratory habits in the North,

owing to the severity of the climate and the paucity of food rendering it absolutely necessary for the reindeer to travel. The Finns, although much harried by the contests of Russians and Swedes for rule over them, have on the whole benefited from Swedish influence;

and the independence of nature thus inspired has been rewarded by the retention and development of the freest constitution. Partial independence of met Finland.



REINDEER SLEDGE.

with anywhere under Russian influence. The Finnish tongue is widely used, though the upper classes retain Swedish, and Russian is

compulsorily taught in the State schools. The Finns



LAPP GIRLS.

vastly outnumber the Lapps, who are believed not to exceed 27,000 at present.

Notwithstanding the persevering efforts of missionaries, the Lapps have not risen very far in the scale. Some belong to the Lutheran, others to the Greek Church. While peaceful in disposition, the Lapp is both greedy, dirty, and drunken. The Finn is somewhat better, partly because of his intermixture and association with other races. He is credited with hos-

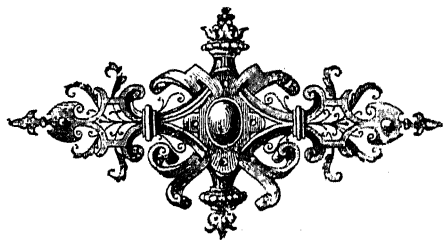


RUSSIAN TARTAR SCHOOLMASTER, WITH PUPILS.

pitality, honesty, and perseverance, but is also revengeful and cruel, and like the Lapps for uncleanly habits. The Lapps are still possessed by many superstitions and relics of paganism, offering reindeer to good and evil deities, etc. However, their tendency to assimilate themselves to Norwegians as soon as they become a little more intelli-

gent, does not give promise that they will long remain a distinguishable race. The Finns who settled on the Volga, in Perm, and near the Ural mountains, have become greatly intermixed with their neighbours.

There still remain a large number of Tartars and Kalmucks in several provinces of Russia, some Mahometans, others Buddhists. A small number of Samoyedes are found in Northern Russia. The Circassians, Georgians, etc., we regard as more Asiatic than European, and their description is given with that of the Asiatic peoples.





CHAPTER XVI.

The Inhabitants of the Austrian Empire.

Heterogeneous collection of peoples—Austria under the Romans—Austria under Charlemagne—Part of German empire till 1866—The Hapsburg dynasty—Relations with Slavs, Magyars, and Turks—Conquests in Italy and Poland—Extent of Austrian rule—The Austrian Germans—Slavonic mixture—Brilliancy of Vienna—The Tyrolese—The Italian Tyrol—The Germans in Austria—The Magyars of Hungary—Relation to the Finns—Early history—Settlement in Hungary—St. Stephen of Hungary—Growth of Hungarian kingdom—Struggles with the Turks—Overthrow of Hungary—Hapsburg Kings of Hungary—Tyranny of later Hapsburgs—Revolution of 1848—Dual monarchy established—Sympathy with Turks and antagonism to Slavs—Peculiarities of Magyar language—Former use of Latin—Modern Magyar literature—Magyar nobles—Many are poor peasants—Landed proprietors—Character of nobles—Oriental traits—Independence, conservatism, extravagance—Hospitality—Pride—Lack of enterprise—Fondness for oratory, dancing, and music—The Slavs of the Austrian empire—Panславism—The Czechs of Bohemia—The most advanced and industrious Slavs—Austrian Poles and Ruthenians—Mixture of Races in Bukowina—Slovenians of Croatia—Gay costumes of Croatsians—Primitive and Eastern character—Position of women—Bosnian Slavs—Slavonian Mahometans—Dissenters from Greek Church—Persecution by Turks.



THIS is as heterogeneous a collection of peoples as can be found in Europe under one rule. Its peoples are only linked by neighbourhood and by subjection to a German ruler. So great is the diversity of peoples that it is impossible to give a brief account of the varying extent of their domain at different periods, and the variations of grouping in which they have

been found. We shall first notice the changes through which the Empire of Austria has passed, and then speak of the separate peoples.



INNSBRUCK GIRL.

The Archduchy of Austria, a southern German territory, was the foundation of the Austrian Empire. Originally

occupied by the Celtic Noricans, it was conquered by the Romans, who established the provinces of Pannonia, including the considerable cities of Vindobona (now Vienna) and Noricum, the Tyrol being included in Rhætia. During the decline of the Roman power these provinces were overrun by various tribes, Teutonic (Vandals, Goths, Lombards and Gepidæ) and Mongolian or Turanian (Huns and Avars). But the first lasting power was established by Charlemagne, who conquered the Avars, and established a margravate which he called Oesterreich, the Eastern country, a term which is still the national one. Remaining part of the German Empire proper down to our own day, when Austria has been excluded from it, Austria was made a Duchy in 1156, and an Archduchy in 1453, being enlarged at various periods by the addition of Styria, Carniola, and other territories.

Austria
under the
Romans.

Austria
under
Charlemagne.

Part of Ger-
man empire
till 1866.

The Emperor Rudolph, the first Hapsburg Emperor, gained possession of the Austrian domain in 1278, and it has ever since been held by his descendants.

At various times both Bohemia and Hungary passed under their rule, but were never thoroughly assimilated, and the yoke was always comparatively easily thrown off. The part which Austria played in relation to Spain and the Netherlands, owing to royal marriages, was complex and important, but weakened its chance of consolidating power at home. Numerous contests with the Turkish Sultans tended however to strengthen their connection with the Slavs and the Magyars, who were equally hostile to the Turks.

The
Hapsburg
dynasty.

Relations
with Slavs,
Magyars, and
Turks.

At the end of the fifteenth century Austria gained considerable additions of territory in the North-east of the Adriatic; later, Venetia and Milan became Austrian; and quite modern times have witnessed their return to Italy and incorporation in the Italian kingdom. In the partitions of Poland, Galicia fell to Austria. Later, Bosnia and Herzegovina have come under Austrian control. In modern times the

Conquests in
Italy and
Poland.

Austrian Emperor reigns over the Germans of Austria Proper, of Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, and Northern Tyrol; the Northern Slavs, divided into Czechs and Moravians (Bohemia and Moravia), Slovaks (North Hungary), Poles and Ruthenians and Russians (Galicia); the Southern Slavs, variously known as Croats, Slovenes, and Servians; the Roumanians of Transylvania; the Magyars of Hungary and Transylvania; the Italians of Southern Tyrol, Gorz, Istria, and the Dalmatian coast; to say nothing of Jews and Gipsies, both of whom form a considerable percentage of the population.

THE AUSTRIAN GERMANS.

We need not say much about the Germans in Austria. Naturally they are much akin to their Suabian neighbours of Bavaria, and belong to the "High Dutch" division of the Germans. But long contact with Slavs has produced a considerable mixture, and this is further evidenced by the number of Slavonic words and expressions current in Austrian speech. For some reason the Austrian is of a gayer disposition than the Northern German, perhaps owing to the greater warmth of the climate, and he is credited with a more kindly heart; but his tendency to sensuality and material pleasures cannot be denied.

Vienna justly ranks as one of the most brilliant capitals of Europe, with a decidedly Parisian style. Great beauty of is evident in the arrangement of the city, in art museums and decorations, in dress, and in buildings. Its cosmopolitan character strikes every visitor.

The Tyrolese are simpler, truer, more superstitious, less cultivated than the Austrians. They are almost universally Roman Catholics, and their chief occupation is in mountain-farming. They exhibit various traces of Slavonic intermixture; while in the South-east there are a score thousand Ladins or Rhetian-Romance people, akin to those of Switzerland. The Southern Tyrolese are Italians, who

are increasing and encroaching on the German-speaking people.

Northern Styria and Carinthia are mainly German in



TYROLESE PEASANTS.

population, as also is the great port of Trieste. The German element is also strong in North Bohemia, and constitutes a considerable minority in Moravia. The

Germans are numerous too in Hungary and Transylvania; The Germans and in Slavonic Croatia and the frontier lands in Austria. they are more numerous than the Magyars, and represent the bulk of the culture and industries. More than two-thirds of the inhabitants of Buda-Pesth are Germans; but in the majority of these territories the Germans are decreasing, relatively or absolutely. Only in South Hungary do the Germans hold their own.



MAGYARS.

THE MAGYARS OF HUNGARY.

Europe scarcely contains a more isolated and dissimilar element anywhere than the Magyars of Hungary. Fundamentally differing in race from the Aryans, belonging to the group of peoples known as Mongoloid and Turanian, their closest affinities are with the widely distant Finns,

a name originally derived from their residence in the fens or marshy regions of Finland. They appeared late in Europe, not until the ninth century. Hungary occupies parts of the Roman provinces of Pannonia and Dacia, which, in the third and fourth centuries, were conquered by the Goths and the Huns, the latter being probably a Mongolian people, of the Finnish or possibly the Turkish branch. After the decline of the Huns,—on the death of Attila,—the Ostro-

Relation
to the
Finns.



MAGYARS.

goths, the Gepidæ, the Lombards, and the Avars in succession held the land; but they either migrated or were conquered and disappeared.

The Magyars are first heard of as occupying the land between the mouths of the Dnieper and the Danube. They proved themselves to be mighty warriors, and overran Hungary and Transylvania, and even went so far in their expeditions as Germany, Italy, and France. They formed a very effective bar between

Early
history.

the Southern Bulgarian kingdom and the Slavs. Their **Settlement in Hungary.** firm settlement in Hungary, and their reception of Christianity from Rome in the tenth century, are events of great significance in European history. Their king Stephen, crowned in the year 1000, received the title of Apostolic King from Pope Sylvester II., and **St. Stephen of Hungary.** became known as St. Stephen of Hungary. To him the ecclesiastical organisation of Hungary owed much. He also created a national council of lords and knights, from which the diets afterwards originated. King (Saint) Ladislaus I., towards the end of the eleventh century, conquered Croatia and part of Galicia. In 1102 Dalmatia was annexed. In 1222 a sort of Hungarian Magna Charta, known as the "Golden Bull," **Growth of Hungarian kingdom.** was wrung from Andrew II. Several Tartar invasions after this time tested the strength of the Magyars to the utmost; and many German colonists were introduced, to make up for losses in war. In the fourteenth century Hungary became one of the most powerful States in Europe, conquering Moldavia and Bulgaria, and even establishing sway over Bosnia. Their king Lewis was also king of Poland.

When the Turks began to press vigorously onwards, in the fifteenth century, the Hungarians, aided by Italians and Spaniards, manfully resisted them and turned back **Struggles with the Turks.** their power, under their king Matthias (son of the celebrated patriot and soldier, John Hunyadi), who also conquered Bohemia and Vienna. Early in the sixteenth century the Hungarian power rapidly declined, and was completely overthrown by the **Overthrow of Hungary.** Turks in 1526, at the great battle of Mohacs. The disputes about the succession to authority in Hungary led to the accession of the Hapsburg family, who have ever since reigned over the Magyars as kings of Hungary, while Transylvania had its own **Hapsburg kings of Hungary.** native rulers from 1571 to the end of the seventeenth century. The Sultans, however, maintained their dominion over great part of Hungary till 1687. Wallachia and Moldavia became more and more dependent on the Turks, who appointed their princes.



MAGYARS OF JASZBERENY.

The Austrian kingdom of Hungary even paid tribute to the Turks as late as the early years of the seventeenth century.

The Hungarians, as well as the Austrians, were at last indebted to John Sobieski, King of Poland, for their delivery from the Turks. His victory at Vienna, in 1683, and the capture of Buda from the Turks, in 1686, led to the return of nearly all Hungary, Croatia, and Slavonia under Austrian rule, to which they have ever since remained subject.

The later Hapsburgs attempted to tyrannise over Hungary, refusing to be crowned in Hungary, carrying the crown of St. Stephen to Vienna, dispensing with diets,

Tyranny of

later

Hapsburgs.

and governing autocratically. The attempted enforcement of the use of German led to a strong reaction. Yet the Hungarians vigorously supported Austria against Napoleon. After many years of arbitrary repression, during which the demand for the restoration of liberties grew explosive in its character, the Austrians excited the Slavs against the Magyars. The genius and zeal of Louis Kossuth raised Hungarian patriotism to a higher level than ever before, and in the war of 1848-9 the Magyars under General Goergei showed bravery and energy which unfortunately did not meet with success, owing to the intervention of a Russian army. Austria treated Hungary cruelly as a conquered country. Gradually, however, the Hungarians recovered their old privileges with interest; and in 1867 was established the present dualistic system of the Austro-Hungarian

Dual
monarchy
established.

Many measures of improvement have since been carried out. Transylvania is incorporated with Hungary, together with the Servian Banat or military frontier. The schools are now all required to teach the Magyar language, and altogether there is a striking revival of Magyarism.

One of the most distinct tendencies of the Magyars, and one which is a source of weakness to the empire generally, is that they feel and show sympathy with the Turks, and resent the anti-Turkish

Sympathy
with Turks.

manifestations of the Slavonian peoples. Thus the Austrian empire presents a double, and therefore ^{Antagonism} doubtful and hesitating, attitude towards both ^{to Slavs.} Russia and the Porte; and this adds enormously to the difficulties of the empire. What the solution will be, who can guess?

The Magyar language is strikingly peculiar, forming, with the languages of the Ostiaks and Voguls of Siberia, the Ugrian group. Notwithstanding their settlement among Aryans for nearly a thousand years, the Magyars have retained essentially unchanged the specialties of agglutination (addition of affixes to modify the sense of words), the use of a singular noun with plural adjectives,

the use of the Christian name and title after the family name, the possessive form of nouns which are modified according to the number and person of the possessor, and lack the auxiliary verb "to have," and gender forms for the sexes. It is a lan-



MAGYAR PEASANT WOMAN.

Peculiarities
of Magyar
language.

guage rich in words and the power of modifying them to express all kinds of relations, abounding in idiomatic expressions, logical in its grammatical structure, very harmonious in its sounds, and altogether highly adapted for literary purposes.

For many centuries the Latin of the Church held sway



SLOVACK VAGABONDS.

in Hungary as the chief literary medium. Numerous
 Former use of Latin. Magyar versions of the Scriptures were however published in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. But Magyar literature can scarcely be said to have risen high till the present century, during which its growth has been rapid. Many translations from Shak-

speare and standard English writers have been made. Kazinczy was the chief writer of the early part of the century. Andreas Horvath wrote a notable national epic entitled "Arpad," finished in 1830; and many other authors of note might be mentioned. The Hungarian Academy of Sciences, founded in 1830, has played an important part in elevating the national language and literature. Any one entering upon its study would now find rich treasures awaiting him. The novels of Maurice Jokai, the histories of Michael Horvath, the travels of Arminius Vambéry, are among the most widely known of Hungarian writings.

Modern
Magyar
literature.

To the Magyars belong the aristocracy of Hungary; and it is to the Magyars that Germans tend to become assimilated when they settle in Hungary. The aristocracy was formerly identified with the possession of the franchise, all such being "ungur," free, noble, counting themselves descended from the original conquerors of Hungary, and even having joint-rights with the king. From the lavishness with which "nobility" was in past times conferred by the kings upon whole villages or districts, for some service to the Crown or nation, it may be imagined that there are great numbers of Hungarian nobles, almost a twentieth of the population in former times, according to some estimates, though now fewer. It happens consequently that many of these nobles are but not the less do they cherish their ancient privileges. These formerly included freedom from arrest, and trial before their peers; but these have been abolished in modern times.

Magyar
nobles.

Many are
poor
peasants.

The landed proprietors have thus come to represent a different grade from that of "noble." They are often fairly educated, and in former times were always capable of speaking Latin, which was the official language. At present their education has advanced greatly. It is only the greater of these proprietors and nobles who form the House of Magnates, answering to our House of Lords, but constituted on an hereditary principle very different from ours, for all the

Landed
proprietors.

sons of a noble enter it when they are twenty-four years old. Another marked difference from our system is, that every peer can be elected to the House of Representatives. Some magnates are very great landowners indeed; and if their mental abilities were as great as their possessions, they might do much for their people; but they seek social distinction instead.

It must be owned that there is some justification for the Magyar nobles cherishing their title. Their gait, their **Character of** air, their looks, have something distinguished **nobles.** about them; possibly a relic of the bravery of old time, when every Magyar was a fighting man—a quality which 1848 showed not to be lost. Tall fine figures, oval heads, black eyes, rough bushy hair, long black moustaches, and a general air of robustness, characterise the men; and if some of their present characters are derived from intermixture with the Slavs, this and other causes have combined to render them very different from the Finns with whom they were of old time closely akin. Only occasionally are the flat nose, round eyes, and large cheek-bones of the Asiatic races now to be seen.

The Magyar ladies, too, present a good deal that is Eastern in appearance—large eyes with long lashes, wavy **Oriental** hair which is often dark, rosy lips, graceful **traits.** figures, and a noble, free gait. Their fresh complexions, too, are such as to win enthusiastic admiration from good judges. Astrakan caps, great cloaks, long boots, long spurs, are common attributes of the men; while the women are notable for the abundance of petticoats they wear.

Since the abolition of the old condition of serfdom, the Magyar peasant is a landed proprietor, however small, **Independence,** and his property is always divided among his **conservatism,** children at his death. Probably this has given **extravagance,** him his striking air of independence, though it is somewhat inimical to the introduction of improvements, owing to lack of capital. The peasant is extravagant when prosperous, and goes to the Jews when the harvest fails. In his marriage and other customs not a few relics of barbarism remain. The peasant's wife, however, has

emerged from the servitude of barbarism; her work is not nearly so toilsome as that of the Swedish woman, and she receives much attention and endearment from her husband.

Hospitality is an inbred virtue in the Magyar race, and its contrary bitterly resented. They value it even more than additions to their personal rights; and the colour under which their long resistance to Austrian domination has been justified, is the regaining of their old privileges, not the acquisition of new ones. Hospitality.
Pride in themselves, pride in their national history, patriotism, and courage, are inextricably bound up in the Magyars, who are but too prone to exaggerate when speaking on any of these topics. Their adherence to their ancient traditions has however hindered them from being much beyond agriculturists and warriors, with some trace even yet of the bandit. Shop-keeping is, as a rule, beneath their dignity; and this, or the lack of desire for gain as such, may account for the abundance of Jews among them. There is Pride.
certainly a lack of invention or commercial enterprise among them; old wooden ploughs are retained, innovations in agriculture are disliked, mining is regarded with disfavour. Altogether, the Magyars have not a few peculiarities which greatly hinder their prosperity in Europe, and make their permanence doubtful. Haranguing on politics is a favourite occupation of the Magyar; but a yet more enthralling pleasure is that of music and dancing. At any time they are ready for a dance, usually to gipsy music, which they pay for extravagantly, not being much addicted to playing themselves. Fondness for oratory, dancing, and music.

THE SLAVS OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

These we must treat briefly, their essential character being dealt with more fully under the head of the Russians. The Slavs, as the numerically predominant and most rapidly increasing people in the empire, deserve great attention. It is not at all improbable that Panslavism may develop in the direction Panslavism.

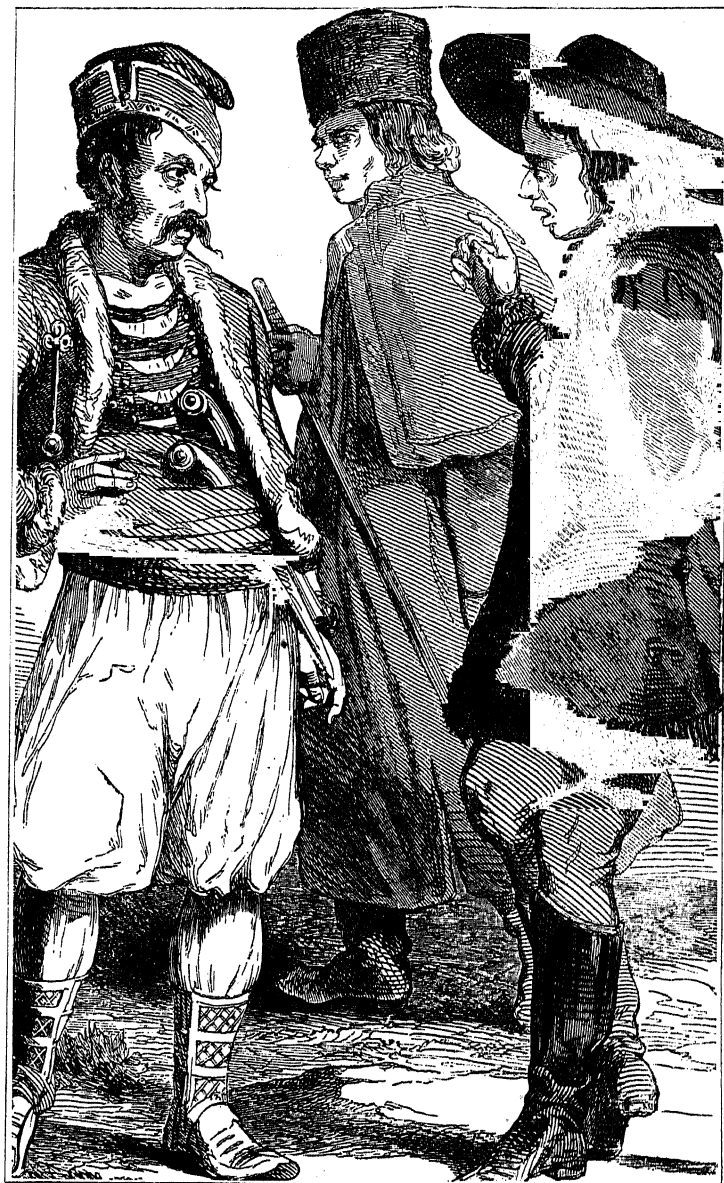
of union with Russia or Servia, or the setting up of a separate Slav power. Yet the differences of race and religion between the various races of Slavs may long keep them disconnected.

Bohemia, the land of the Czechs, or Tsekhs, with its neighbour Moravia, includes some of the most prosperous Slavonians. The Slovaks of Northern Hungary are nearly allied to this group of Slavs. The Czechs are miners, glass-blowers, sugar-makers, and brewers, as well as agriculturists; while the Germans of the country excel in woollen and other weaving manufactures. Formerly the German language and habits were in the ascendant; but Slavonic influence has greatly increased of late years, and the Czech language, literature, and music have developed rapidly. It may safely be said

that the Czechs are the most advanced of all Slavs, and the most industrious. Their University of Prague is celebrated wherever science or literature is studied. The vast majority of the people are Roman Catholics. The reformer John Huss is the most famous Bohemian; but his martyrdom was the prelude to bloody religious wars, at the end of which the majority of the Protestants left the country.

The Austrian Poles and Ruthenians, in Galicia and Bukowina, are divided in religion, the former being Romanist, the latter belonging to the Greek Church; but a multitude of Jews monopolise trade. The Poles are enthusiastic and patriotic, courageous and impulsive, but do not seem destined to play an important part in future politics. The Ruthenians stick strongly to calling themselves Rusy, or Russians, and their country "Zemlya Rus," or Russian land. They have many qualities that are admirable, being vigorous and industrious, lovers of freedom, as well as preserving a strong self-respect. For good or ill, they have no aristocracy.

The Duchy of Bukowina is a special meeting-place of races, for it includes within it, besides Ruthenians, Poles, and Czechs, numerous Germans, Roumanians, Magyars, Jews, and Armenians.



SERB, AUSTRIAN GERMAN, AND CROAT.

The Slavs of Croatia, Slavonia, and the military frontier are Roman Catholics, and most of them are properly designated Slovenians. In Carinthia and Carniola the same people have been rapidly gaining ground. Many of these are designated Wends. Marburg itself is almost entirely Slovenised. Agram, the capital of Croatia, is a typical Sloven city; and in it may be witnessed as attractive and varied a selection of costumes as can be found in Europe: all the colours of the rainbow are worn by men and women alike. In winter they wear fur-lined mantles; in summer, largely muslins or homespun, with wide, overlapping aprons; a brilliant scarf is wound round the waist, often two. Jewellery is extensively worn; but it is not costly, owing to the poverty of the people. The head-dresses are most varied and picturesque; the girls' hair is often plaited in two long hanging plaits, tied at the ends with bright ribbon. Their feet are either cased in gay leather sandals or high boots, or are entirely uncovered. The men are dressed with equal showiness—in white tunics with large sleeves, bright scarlet vests studded with silver stars, leathern belts, tunic-skirts, loose trousers of muslin, and sandals or boots. In cold weather a glowing mantle, often highly embroidered in various colours, is thrown over the shoulder. The hat is often a broad-brimmed felt one.

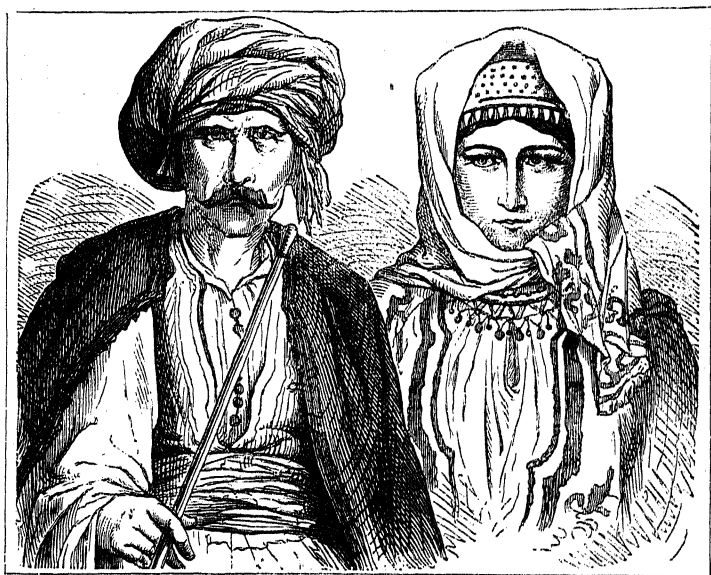
Altogether the Croat cherishes a very primitive style of life and culture, and certainly is not one of the most progressive Slavs. They have a propossession in favour of fatness, which is decidedly Oriental; and in several particulars they show the results of Turkish influences. Thus their figures and faces do not satisfy our ideas of beauty. Round faced, dark eyed and complexioned, good tempered, and extremely hospitable, lazy, and fond of spirits, the men make their women do much of their hard work, stand behind them at table, eat out of their plate, and only drink when asked by them. Perhaps they are lower in nature because their soil is so fertile; at any rate all classes are improvident. This may be due to their old

Primitive
and Eastern
character.

Position of
women.

Slavonian communism, or life in communities, not yet extinct, where from thirty to seventy of a clan live in unity, having all property in common, and thus lacking in the sense of personal property.

We deal with the Bosnian Slavs here, since they are now under Austrian administration. Long a Bosnian Slavs. fief of the Hungarian Crown, Bosnia was conquered by the Turks in 1527, and remained in their pos-



BOSNIANS.

session till after the treaty of Berlin, in 1878. But Bosnia presents us with, to use Mr. Evans's words ("Through Bosnia and the Herzegovina") "the unique phenomenon of Mahometan feudalism, and the extraordinary spectacle of a race of Slavonic Mahometans." The old feudal Slavonian nobles preserved their rights by Slavonian becoming Mahometans; but they jealously Mahometans. maintain their Slavonian speech. Roman Catholics it is true remained among the peasantry in considerable num-

bers; but in recent years they have largely emigrated, and their place has been taken by adherents of the Greek Church. How far the Mahometan religion will survive the cessation of Turkish influence remains to be seen. In any case, the Austrian occupation has been carried out with remarkably little difficulty hitherto.

A striking feature about the Bosnian past is the spread among its Slavonic peoples of a form of dissent from the Greek Church. The sect of the Bogomiles, as **Dissenters from Greek Church.** they are termed, took its rise in Armenia, and resembled Puritans in their hatred of images, bishops, and sacerdotalism. They set up a kind of primitive Christian communism, which suited very well the Slavonian style of communities. Bulgarians, Servians, and Bosnians afforded them many converts; and Bosnia became their stronghold when persecution had almost **Persecution by Turks.** crushed them elsewhere. They were persecuted, however, both by Roman Catholics and Turks until, the last being the strongest, a large proportion of the Bosnians became Moslems by force. In fact, many even of the Christians in recent years wore a Mahometan garb, though retaining their Christian worship. In return, the Slavonic Mahometans have almost invariably but one wife, and allow considerable freedom to the women; and they retain many Christian features in their worship.





CHAPTER XVII.

The Serbians, Bulgarians, and Roumanians.

Old kingdom of Servia—Turkish tyranny—Black George—Gradual gain of independence—Montenegrin independence—Montenegrin character—Servian character and manners—The Bulgarians—Adoption of Slavonic speech—First Bulgarian kingdom—Second kingdom—Third kingdom—Turkish domination—Recent emancipation—Bulgarian character—The Roumanians or Wallachs—Thracian descent—Migrations—Roumanian kingdom—Primitive state of the people—Condition of the peasant women—Emancipation of peasants—Townspeople and boyars.



SERVIANs.

THE Servians, a most interesting branch of the Slavs, after a chequered history, in which they were long in alliance with or subject to the Greek em-
 perors of Byzantium, became a kingdom in the eleventh century; and in the early part of the fourteenth century, under Stephen Dushan, won from the

expiring Byzantine empire a large part of its Thracian, Macedonian, Albanian, and Greek possessions. But Servia was destined soon to fall to pieces before the advancing power of the Turks. At various

times the Turks ravaged Servia with special severity; and a vast number of the inhabitants emigrated to Hungary and to other Slav territories, retaining their religion and institutions against all attempts to Magyarise them. In 1804 the Servians at last, under Kara George, or Black George, roused themselves



SERVIAN HOME SCENE.

against the Turks, and succeeded in driving them out after long and wearisome struggles. In 1813 **Black George.** however, the Turks returned, to be again attacked under the leadership of Milosh Obrenovich, who was declared prince by the national assembly, and in 1830 gained the consent of the Porte to his authority being continued to his descendants. In 1862 the Turkish

garrisons were removed from Belgrade, and the Mahometan inhabitants have very largely withdrawn from the country. King Milan (1872-1889) has abdicated. In 1878 the Servians declared war against Turkey, and were saved from destruction by the intervention of Russia. By the treaty

Gradual
gain of inde-
pendence.



MONTENEGRIN WOMAN.

of Berlin, Servia gained an increase of territory and became a kingdom independent of Turkey. In 1885 they were led very ill-advisedly to make war upon Bulgaria,—their enemy of long standing,—and suffered severely.

The Servians are a much more conspicuous nationality, and are quite the most intellectual of the southern Slavs,

having a very considerable literature. The majority belong to the Greek Church; but some are Roman Catholics. Education is rapidly elevating the people, who are ambitious of playing a leading part. The peasants even follow the plough with arms in their belt, to show that they are free Serbs. Yet old customs are carefully preserved, even that of paying regard to patron saints, in a manner not easily to be distinguished from the worship of pagan divinities. The Servian peasants are much more prosperous and well-to-do than the Russians; their morals are higher, and justice is much better administered. Pig-breeding is one of the chief agricultural pursuits. The Servians, with many customs resembling those of other Slavs, have acquired some Eastern habits from their intercourse with the Turks, wearing loose trousers fastened at the knee, and highly decorated jackets, and being somewhat reserved to strangers. When honoured visitors are received, the daughter of the house washes their feet.

Belgrade, the capital, is not yet very prosperous, nor even clean and neat in appearance. There is much poverty in the country, though there are few beggars. In the country the water-mills, ox-carts, ox-goads, and ploughs are what they were in the time of the Romans; the men wear the *bracca* with leather bandages and shapeless leather footcoverings of the Gauls and Britons; some of the huts are enclosures of unseasoned logs with the bark on them, thatch at the top, and a hole in the roof for the smoke to come through; and at the doors of these huts women sit spinning flax from distaffs. The women do a great deal of work.

In this place we may add something about Montenegro, so small and yet so brave as to claim a place, as having been almost the only Slav principality that never really owned the mastery of the Turk. The strength of the natural fortress of Cettinge in the mountains,—a village capital,—has greatly aided them in the struggle for independence. Of late it is due to English sympathy with Montenegro that she has gained some territory, especially the harbour of Dulcigno,

Servian
character
and manners.

Montenegrin
independ-
ence.

on the Adriatic. The Montenegrins are mainly an agricultural people; but their warlike history tinges Montenegrin their whole character. Every male capable of character. bearing arms is a soldier, and always on the alert and



MONTENEGRINS.

eager for the war-cry. This naturally diminishes their success in agriculture, their wealth, and the spread of education. Nearly everything in Montenegro is primi-

tive. The prince sits to administer justice under a tree. There are no lawyers, and, perhaps as a consequence, justice is cheap and speedy. Women do not occupy a high position, and have to do much menial toil. They are strong, however, and their bearing is dignified.

BULGARIANS.

The Bulgarians are certainly one of the most remarkable people in Europe, because they have thrown off one form of speech for another, have adopted very largely the nature of a different race, the Slavs, and have in succession had three powerful kingdoms, and may not improbably found a fourth.

**Adoption
of Slavonic
speech.**

Originally a Finnish people, having a large territory on the Volga round Kazan for several centuries, a great southward migration carried them into the Thracian and other territories of the Greek empire in the seventh century; and in the ninth and early part of the tenth centuries they largely increased their dominion, stretching it almost over all modern Turkey. The

**First
Bulgarian
kingdom.**

Russians overthrew the first Bulgarian kingdom; and subsequently the Eastern Empire again recovered power over it. A second Bulgarian kingdom arose in the eleventh century, in the western part of its old territory, Macedonia. Again Bulgaria was

**Later
kingdoms.**

vanquished, and incorporated with the Byzantine Empire. A third Bulgarian kingdom arose towards the end of the twelfth century, occupying most of the old Bulgarian land. In the next century the kingdom at first largely increased, taking in much of Greece and Albania. Later, after passing into the hands

**Turkish
domination.**

of another dynasty, Bulgaria broke up, and after 1382 became a Turkish dependency. It is only since the treaty of Berlin (1878) that part of the old Bulgaria has gained practical independence, and another portion, Eastern Roumelia, partial independence. They have now declared their union, and may yet grow to a kingdom, if the Russian spoiler will let them alone.

The Bulgarians have certainly gained our sympathy



BULGARIAN GIRL.

very largely of late, by the sturdiness, and withal the moderation, with which they have maintained their rights to what the Berlin treaty gave them, by their bravery when wantonly attacked by the Servians, and by their successful resistance to Russian intrigue and Bulgarian selfish projects. Their resistance to Panslavism character. is no doubt to be explained by the Finnish (Mongoloid) blood in their veins, and by their considerable



BULGARIANS.

relations with non-Slavonic peoples like Greeks and Roumanians. They appreciate education, foster social life, and possess many domestic virtues, among which may be classed cleanliness and good cookery. Agriculture is zealously pursued, the women taking a large part in it. Their language, although mainly Slavonic, shows traces of their Finnish descent in the retention of the definite article added to the end of a word.

"East Roumelia," said a writer in *The Times* recently, "was the fairest province of Turkey in Europe. In parting with it, the Turks lost their rose-garden. The famous otto of roses is made out of the millions and millions of flowers that bloom during the summer round Kesanlik and in the beautiful valley which is watered by the Tundscha. At midsummer the land yields a never-failing, abundant harvest of corn and maize, which finds its way by train to Constantinople. In early autumn, when the grapes, plums, figs, and walnuts are gathered in, the buffalo carts are too few to contain the overflowing crop that pours from the mountain sides. For days and days, from sunrise to dusk, the populations of whole villages, men, women, and children, are at work picking fruit and carrying it to the granaries. Boys march along with baskets on their backs; and little dark-eyed girls patter behind with loads in their red and blue aprons. But, in spite of all this hearty work, fruit enough remains on the ground to fatten birds and squirrels innumerable. Partridge, quail, woodcock, wild-pigeon, and snipe start up wherever the chance sportsman may look for them; in fact, the crack of the gun is heard so seldom that it is the vultures which have to act as game-keepers, and prevent Nature's preserves from getting overstocked."

THE ROUMANIANS, OR WALLACHS.

The Roumanians,—or Romans, as they would have us call them, from their fancied relation to the old Romans,—Vlachs, or Wallachs, as they are called by their neighbours,—according to Professor Freeman, are the representatives of those inhabitants of Thrace and other parts of the Balkan peninsula who exchanged their own speech for Latin; thus they represent the Thracian race in its widest sense, and probably are more nearly allied to Greeks than to Romans. Nevertheless they may retain some Roman blood; and they certainly are a mixture of various races. The vast proportion of Roumanians belong to the Orthodox Greek Church.

Thracian
descent.

The Roumanians of the kingdom of Roumania arose

from a migration of people from further south; for there is no sign of a Roumanian population north of the Danube before the thirteenth century. They formed part of the

Migrations. third kingdom of Bulgaria, and, continuing to migrate from fear of the Turks, occupied Wallachia, Moldavia, and parts of Transylvania. Later, they were forced to own the rule of the Turks, though

they were not so thoroughly subjugated as the Bulgarians. The Turks

Roumanian named or de-
kingdom. posed their
princes, but did not administer the provinces. After the treaty of Paris, in 1856, the two provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia chose the same prince, and have since 1878 been independent of Turkey, their prince in 1887 taking the title of king.

There is no doubt that Roumanian is mainly a Latin tongue, less modified than modern Italian.

Primitive The people are
state of the mostly agri-
people. cultural, living
in a more primitive
condition than the Bul-



ROUMANIAN WOMAN.

garians, scarcely educated at all, unskilled even in agriculture, living very frequently in small huts partially sunk in the soil and with only two rooms, and in many ways reminding one of the most degraded Irish peasantry; consequently marsh fever is very common. At work, the peasants usually wear a short, coarse, white linen blouse, fastened by a belt at the waist, and breeches of the same material, a cloth or felt cap, or a sheepskin hat. The

women work hard in the fields, and are even employed on the roads and as navvies. They wear a loose, bright-coloured or white jacket, and a darker though often showily-coloured skirt; a kerchief is folded over the head and under the chin. With their field-work, early marriages, and large families, it is not surprising that the women age early. A very frugal diet is the rule; but drunkenness is too frequent. Altogether, there is a good deal of lawless violence, as is only too likely when society is in so primitive a state. However, the peasant, who was formerly a slave, is now emancipated; and if he were more steadily industrious and thrifty, prosperity would be easily within his reach; but he is too ignorant, superstitious, indolent, and egotistic, though kind-hearted when his suspicions are not excited.

The inhabitants of the towns and the boyars, or nobles, have imbibed a sort of Frenchified polish, like the Swedes, attended with a very questionable state of morals. The richer classes are very idle, and prone to spend their money abroad. Gaiety abides with them, although in many cases their estates are deeply mortgaged, owing to inveterate gambling. Divorce is very much too common.

It is fair, however, to acknowledge that in these latter days the Roumanians are showing great signs of improvement. Better railways and roads and better education are diffusing the seeds of Western ideas, and a higher national ideal is growing.





CHAPTER XVIII.

The Greeks.

Former greatness of Greece—Origin of the Greeks—Wide diffusion of Greeks—Greek colonies—Genius of Greeks—Conquest by Macedon—Oligarchy and democracy—Roman conquest of Greece—Greek slavery—Teutonic invasions—The Byzantine empire—The Greek Church—Slavonic invasions—Turkish and Venetian domination—Russian interest in Greece—Greeks assimilated by Turks—Kingdom of Greece established—Ancient Greek classic literature—Modern Greek literature—The Albanians—Return of Greeks to Greece—Mercantile ingenuity—Education—Factions and discussions—Courteousness—Home comfort—Physical appearance—The Albanian tribes—A wilder type—The Albanian character—The Cycladeans—Relics of old customs—Superstitions—Costumes of women—Industries—Houses—Dancing and music—Education—Syra—The Cretans—Minos—Venetian rule—Turkish domination.



MODERN GREEK WOMAN.

THE remnant of a great people, endowed with the wreck of a great name and the merest shadow of old prosperity, the Greeks of to-day are still most interesting, like their country. Among the most mountainous for its size in Europe, and divided up into numerous small plains, it produced the largest number of distinct and individual peoples and States we find anywhere; and, by reason of its mountain barriers and defensible passes, the people were able long to maintain themselves against external domination. But the sea

was their true highway; and love of adventure and freedom, and sensibility to external impressions, were among their most striking characteristics. For these reasons, they have long been, and seem likely long to remain, the most famous and remarkable of all the peoples of the earth.

How the early Greeks came into Greece, whether by sea or land, is unknown. They may have been Pelasgians; but there is great doubt about this. But in early Greek records the Hellenes speedily attained pre-eminence. The latter no doubt owed much to later settlers; and the Greek legends tell us of Cadmus from Phœnicia, Cecrops and Danaus from Egypt, and Pelops from Asia Minor, giving rise to the name Peloponnesus. No doubt it was to the Phœnicians that the Greeks were indebted for the art of writing; for both the names and the forms of Greek letters are evidently derived from the Phœnician. Nevertheless these foreigners and their followers did not markedly affect the race characters of the Greeks.

Before long, the energy of the Greeks had so far developed, that instead of receiving foreign immigrants they began to undertake foreign expeditions; and the various legends and poems of the heroic age of Greece no doubt represent some expeditions which really occurred, heightened and glorified. It is certain that at an early period the Greeks spread over the islands of the Greek archipelago, Crete, and the Ionian islands, and afterwards began to colonise the coasts of Asia Minor.

In many ways the Greek colonies are among the most significant of ancient phenomena. There was nothing comparable to them as a civilising influence until the spread of Roman government; and in some respects they were more efficient and valuable than any other mode of the diffusion of a race. The Greeks colonised in no haphazard way. When the population of a city or of a district grew too abundant, or when civil dissensions became acute, they departed in organised bodies, often under leaders appointed by the

mother city, or metropolis;* and thus there was no break in the common traditions of the people. The new city was at once supplied with temples for the worship of the gods, with an agora or place of public meeting for the citizens, with a gymnasium for the exercise of the youth, and, in later times, with a theatre for dramatic representations. Almost every colony was settled upon the sea-coast. Of course, some intermixture took place between them and the people among whom they settled; and this in time modified the Greeks themselves.

In time the Greek colonies extended to Sicily, Italy, and to the western parts of the Mediterranean, Massilia, in Gaul, being the chief. The north coast of Africa was also colonised, Cyrene being the principal city; and this not sufficing for the colonising zeal of the Greeks, they also extended into Epirus, Macedonia, and Thrace, each of which were afterwards to exercise so marked an influence upon the country's destiny; and further to the Crimea and the mouth of the Danube.

For any adequate idea of the vast influence which the little States of Greece exercised before the Christian era, **Genius of** —the genius for philosophy, poetry, the drama, **Greeks.** and art which they manifested,—the warlike abilities, the patriotism, the courage, the devotion, the heroism which they displayed,—we must refer the reader to separate works on Greek history. Nowhere has the development of one type produced so many striking varieties; nowhere have so many experiments in government been made; and no country has left the world so varied a legacy for study. The commonest observation of literature, the slightest acquaintance with the thoughts of educated men, will show that now, more than ever, men are occupied in reaping the harvest sown in Greece **Conquest by** more than a score of centuries ago. At last **Macedon.** Greece, having degenerated, was conquered by the northern State of Macedon, half Greek, half bar-

* It is almost unnecessary to point out how far from the original sense we have diverted the word "metropolis." London or Paris is not the mother-city of any other, in the sense in which Corinth was the mother-city of Syracuse.

barian; and Macedon, aided by Greece proper, subjugated Asia. This conquest diffused Greek culture and rule very widely, but weakened the Greeks at home.

As our great Greek scholar, Professor Jebb, writes, "The Hellenes set the Hellenic stamp on everything which they create. Every element of their life receives its mature shape from themselves, even when the germ has been borrowed; the Hellenes are an original people in the sense that they either invent or transform. At

a very early time they have the political life of cities, and they never rise from the conception of the city to the higher unity of the nation. . .

As the leading commonwealths grow to maturity, two principles of government stand out in contrast—oligarchy and democracy. Each is represented by a great city round which the lesser States

oligarchy
and
democracy.

are grouped. The inevitable collision comes, and the representative of democracy is at last vanquished. But in the

hour of victory oligarchy is discredited by the selfish ambition of its champion; a time of political confusion follows, in which no one city can keep a leading place. Separate interests prevail over principles; public spirit declines. The dissension of the cities,—incurable because arising from a deep inner decay,—enables the crafty king of a half-barbarian country to make himself the military dictator of Greece. But just when the better days of Hellenic civilisation seem to be over, a new career is opened to it. Men who are not of Hellenic blood help



THEMISTOCLES.

to diffuse the Hellenic language, thought, and manners over a wider field, and the life of the modern Greek nation begins."

The conquest of Macedonia and Greece by Rome finally destroyed their national life, while widely diffusing Greek culture and philosophy, which greatly influenced the Romans themselves. But it should be remembered that there was in the most glorious days, of Greece a dark substratum of slavery on which their system rested. It was owing to the labour of Greek slaves that they found leisure to be so great: and Nemesis carried vast numbers of the cultured Greeks into slavery. Another feature of interest in regard to the Asiatic spread of Greek influence by the Macedonian conquest, is that Greek became common throughout Western Asia, and furnished a language for those Scriptures which Christians hold priceless.

After the Roman Empire had existed for more than two centuries, the Greeks began to suffer from Teutonic invasions. The Goths first attacked them, but were valiantly resisted, and did not succeed in settling permanently. It may be that some of this revived energy was due to the introduction of Christianity, which was followed by the establishment of the Eastern Imperial —the Greek—city of Byzantium (Constantinople). From this time, for centuries, the history of Greece was closely connected with that of the Greek, Byzantine, or Eastern empire. The establishment of the Greek Church, as distinct from the Roman, and the religious dissensions to which it gave rise, cannot be entered upon; but these events had a great effect upon the eastern nations, knitting together the adherents of the Church, while they led to numerous dissentient provinces being detached from the empire, and finally facilitated its conquest by the Turks.

Another potent element affecting the Greeks was the Slavonic invasion, which was so considerable that in the seventh and eighth centuries the Slavs occupied a large part of Macedonia and Greece; and the name Slavonia

was given to the country from the Danube to the Peloponnesus, the coast principally remaining to the Greeks. But the empire gained control over the invaders, and many of the Greeks returned to their ancient seats, and a great process of mingling began, ^{Slavonic} ^{invasions.} which has distinctly modified the Greek race. The old name of Hellenes even died out, never having been revived till the present century; the Greeks—strange historical fact—actually were proud to call themselves Romans. The mediæval empire which the Palæologus



GREEK WOMEN OF CLASSICAL TYPES.

family established on the ruins of the former one at Constantinople always held a great part of Greece, but was often disconnected from it by other powers occupying intervening territory. In this period (1261-1453) Greece was fairly prosperous, sharing in the commercial advancement of Venice, which often possessed more or less of the peninsula and islands.

"From the year 1453 to the end of the eighteenth century," says Professor Donaldson, "almost all the occasions on which the Greek people appear on the page

of the historian are occasions on which we read of them that they were butchered or sold into slavery." Such is the dismal summary of the result of the taking of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, and the conquest of the Peloponnesus in 1460. But Venice for long maintained the part of champion of Christendom against the Turk, and in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries always had hold of some part of Greece, often a large part. In 1699, the peace of Carlowitz gave all the Peloponnesus to Venice, to be lost again less than a score of years after.* Various other minor Christian powers held portions of Greek territory at different times, but the kingdom of Epirus was the most persistent of these. Others, as the duchy of Athens and the principality of Achaia, or Morea, had a fluctuating history, but finally fell into the devouring jaws of the Turks.

In the eighteenth century Russia, pressing upon Turkey on the north, began to take up the part of the champion of Greek Christendom, and to rouse the Greeks to insurrection. But her efforts have always had the self-interested aim of securing their subjection and devotion to Russia, and thus have continually failed to give Greece all she hoped for. At various times the Sultan promised to protect the Christian religion, but did little or nothing to fulfil his promises; and Russia's selfish designs being seen through by the other European powers, the Turk was maintained as an essential element in the balance of European power.

It was a remarkable fact, that this Greek nationality, though often almost annihilated,—men and women being continually massacred or sold into slavery, their children taken from them and trained as Janissaries (the Sultan's body-guard), even their spirits being subdued, so that

* It was during this war that the Turks, being attacked in Athens, retired to the Acropolis, placing part of their powder in the Parthenon. The Venetians exemplified the unscrupulousness of war by sending their bombs into this priceless building, which had hitherto remained almost uninjured by time. One bomb fell on the powder, and caused an explosion which utterly destroyed many masterpieces of art, and greatly defaced the building.

many of them became the Sultan's viziers and generals, and adopted Mahometanism,*—could yet so far retain and cherish their national feelings as to summon up courage to resist the Turks in the nineteenth century. When, in 1821, the Greek war of independence broke out, general European sympathy supported them. Yet they would have been once more crushed had not the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia annihilated the Turkish fleet at Navarino, in 1827. In 1832 the present kingdom was established, the Turks still



MODERN GREEKS.

keeping Epirus, Thessaly, and Crete. Thessaly and a part of Epirus were added to Greece as late as 1881.

The matchless literature of ancient Greece, the poems

* A curious incident is told in connection with this change of faith. The inhabitants of thirty-six villages in the valley of the Aons, in Albania, remained Christians till 1760. At last they could no longer endure their distresses. They came to the conclusion that either Christianity was not true, or it ought to put them in a better position. They resolved to try their faith once more, and approach the Divine Being, with the most solemn fasts, assuring themselves that if He did not listen to them, He did not wish them to remain Christians. No improvement followed; and, on Easter Day, they in one body went over to Mahometanism.

of Hesiod, Homer, Pindar, Simonides, the plays of *Æschylus*, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes, the **Greek classic literature.** histories of Herodotus, Thucydides and Xenophon, the orations of Demosthenes and *Æschines*, the philosophy of Plato and Aristotle—when one mentions these, one calls up the names of forces as living to-day as ever, and which influence profoundly the whole of Christian civilisation. After a period of criticism, grammar, and philosophy, which had its centre at Alexandria and not on Greek soil, there came the **Byzantine Greek era** with its mass of writings, only valuable because it preserves fragments of more ancient Greek books. The modern Greeks have done wisely in adapting their language to popular use, introducing European ideas of syntax, and thus preparing the way for a new literature, signalised by such works as that of Tricoupis on the Revolution, and by the poems of Sontsos (2) and Rangabé.

We must connect with the Greeks rather than the Slavs the Albanian or Skipetar people, descended largely from the old Illyrians, and much intermixed with the Greeks. They first took the Albanian name in the twelfth century. Epirus was under a separate ruler in the thirteenth century, and the first despot Michael established a considerable empire, holding Thessaly and part of southern Greece, Thessalonica, and Adrianople; but it was soon contracted again to Epirus, and in the next century passed under Servian domination.

The Albanians. When the Servians fell, the Albanians again became prominent and held several principalities, including the kingdoms of Albania and Thessaly. Then later, Epirus passed to Venice in the second half of the fourteenth century, and Thessaly to the Turk. Finally, in the fifteenth century, the Turk won all Albania, and has kept it ever since. About seventy per cent. of the Albanians are Mahometans, the rest belonging to the Greek Church.

Whatever the intermixture of blood which has modified his nature, the modern Greek is fully conscious and proud of his Greek ancestors. In many cases the old

classic type of features is quite unrecognisable, but in some corners they still linger; and since the war of independence the Greek population has been largely replenished from Greek colonies abroad, especially from Constantinople. Greeks are still, however, spread far and wide in the Levant and Turkey; and for the most typical Greeks the islands of the Archipelago must be searched. Not a few have become notable merchants in England.

Return of
Greeks to
Greece.

The mention of merchants suggests the character in which Greeks are best known. They are clever bargainers, a cleverness which often becomes cunning, and even cheating. The Levant is flooded with unscrupulous Greek adventurers. Of course this is the natural reaction against the ages of oppression and slavery to which the Romans and the Turks subjected them.

Mercantile
ingenuity.

To do him justice, the Greek perceives the value of education. He learns the ancient Greek grammar and reads the Greek classics, and acquires all the education the University of Athens can give him. Consequently, the professions are overcrowded in Greece, and we find men of education making incomes which an average clerk in England would despise. Journalism is a refuge which many seek; and the number of journals is very great in proportion to the size of the country. The educated men are eager for government employment, or to enter the government itself, and spend much time and effort in compassing their objects. Yet what is this but a similar case to that of England? only here there are so many other outlets for enterprise. The modern Greek is truthfully accused of being factious, and somewhat fractious if his lofty positions be not granted. Discussion and curiosity are two of his prominent characteristics, and in pursuit of them he loses some more substantial advantages.

Education.

Factions and
discussions.

Greeks are emphatically courteous, and good company. They are not prone to excess either in eating or drinking. Their courteousness is often exhibited in a form bordering on the ridiculous, as when servants

Courteous-
ness.

sit down to dinner with their master, and one hears the term "brother" bandied about between those of extremely different station.

As regards home comfort, the Greeks certainly shine. They are, as a rule, much more well-to-do than other

peoples lately under Turkish domination. Their land is fertile, their wine is drinkable, their grapes and other fruits are abundant, and their homes show a sense of refinement and comfort unknown to most of the Slav populations.

The Greeks rank high as regards personal appearance



MODERN GREEKS.

among the European peoples. Rather dark-complexioned, finely formed oval faces, with sparkling eyes, well-formed

nose, rather small hands and feet, make up a **Physical appearance.** sufficiently striking personality. The men in former times universally wore, and still do in the majority of cases, the skirted costume which somewhat resembles the Scotch kilt. The women are very good-looking, wearing a long kerchief over their head, gracefully folded, and often most elaborately decorated and embroidered dresses with large sleeves.

The Albanians are a wilder and more insubordinate people than the Greeks. Being often Mahometans, their

kinship and attachment to the Greeks are often obscured by religious differences. In the rugged mountain wilds the people preserve very much of their old tribal system, one of their habits being that of seeking wives outside their own tribe. "His walk is a haughty stalk," says one who knows the Albanian well. "With his gold-embroidered vest, bright sash, his leather pouch in front, in which are stuck two gold-hilted jewelled pistols and yataghan, his many-
Albanian tribes.

A wilder type.
 folded snowy kilt, which swings from side to side as he struts along, he is indeed an imposing-looking creature." This is a specimen of the Mahometan Albanian; while his neighbour who remains in the Greek Church often wears the fez, Turkish jacket, and baggy trousers tied in at the knee. He cannot carry arms openly, being a Christian; and he wears the fawning insincere look of the oppressed. He is probably a merchant or tradesman



ALBANIANS.

with money, of which he dares not show the evidences, lest the Turk should pounce down upon him for taxes. But it must be admitted that the Albanians of the North, the Gheggas, who are Roman Catholics, maintain their old warlike demeanour and attitude of defiance of the Turk; and an institution resembling the vendetta, together with tribal vengeance, keeps alive the ferocity of their nature. They are implacable and cruel as foes, warm and hos-

pitable as friends, and loyal to their own side. There is rough material for a good, bold, sturdy character in them; and it may be hoped that it will one day be ranged under the banner of Greece. At present they have a good deal of the bandit tendency; and this is not to be surprised at under the rule of the Turks. Their warlike capacity, however, has been considerably utilised by the Turks, who have allowed them to be commanded by their own chiefs, and indulged their freebooting tendencies in other lands. One of the least agreeable features of the women is, that they carry arms, and are ready to take a violent part in their family or tribal feuds.

The
Albanian
character.

THE CYCLADEANS.

The islands of the Greek Archipelago are peculiarly interesting, because they have preserved types of feature, manners, customs, and dress which have elsewhere passed away. They have for the most part been free from invasions, and have largely escaped oppression. Mr. Bent's interesting volume on "The Cyclades" is our best and most recent authority.

Among the many island customs of to-day which had their precise parallel in ancient Greek times, ^{Relics of} ~~old customs.~~ we may note the following. In Seriphos "every proprietor has his grave in his own field, built like a little shrine; and if he sells his field, special provision is made against the disturbance of ancestral bones. In Keos, a church is dedicated to St. Anarguris as the patron saint of flocks and herds, representing the ancient god Pan. Whenever an ox is ailing, they take it to this church and pray for its recovery. If the cock crows when they start, or they hear the voice of a man, or the grunt of a pig, there is every hope that the animal will be cured; but on the contrary, if they hear a cat, a dog, or a woman, it is looked upon as an evil omen. When at the church of St. Anarguris, they solemnly register a vow, that if the ox recovers they will present it to the saint when its days of work are over; accordingly every year, on July 1, the day on which they celebrate the feast of

this saint, numbers of aged oxen may be seen on the road to this church, where they are slaughtered on the threshold, and the flesh distributed among the poor.

Vampires and nereids, or spirits of the water, are still believed in; evil spirits are exorcised; diseases are cured by magic incantations and charms; hobgoblins haunt the rocks; rain falls because the vault ^{Superstitions.} of heaven is full of holes like a sieve, and God pours



Argos.

Corinth.

Sparta.

GREEK WOMEN.

water on to it out of skins, and sometimes He squeezes hard and sometimes softly; miracle-working pictures are numerous. Even the manifold powers of the sun are still believed in. "I have heard an island mother say," relates Mr. Bent, "'Perhaps the sun will carry a message for me to my child,' when she was speaking of her daughter in service somewhere on the mainland." These are but

specimens of a great number of superstitions still active in the Cyclades.

Among the curious costumes of the Cyclades, none is more remarkable than that of the women of Siphnos, now only worn in full on ceremonial occasions. The head-

Costumes of women. dress consists of a sort of cap padded with cotton, around which a shawl is twisted, covered with varied gold embroideries. The skirt of the dress is of cloth of gold, the bodice splendidly embroidered in gold and colours, and a green velvet overgown is worn, with hanging sleeves, and decked with gold trimmings. In Kimolos the festal dress is of silver brocade, covered with gold and coloured flowers. In Melos the women's head-dress is a thin white muslin veil tied round the chin and carried over the head in crossing folds, the ends hanging down behind. Two curls emerge on each side. The festal-dress is very elaborate, the head-dress having a padded foundation, edged with gold lace, over which the muslin handkerchief is twisted. The jacket is of purple silk edged with fur, and the skirt of satin spangled with white flowers. A stomacher of silver brocade, a silk gauze apron edged with old Greek lace, and dainty little shoes, complete the costume. In the other islands many equally interesting costumes still remain. In a good many islands the women always cover their faces.

In Melos every garment and every household article is still made at home. Cotton spinning and weaving are the regular occupations, a loom occupying a corner in every cottage. In Keos the oak harvest is the great feature. There are a million and a half of oak trees on the island; and the acorns are as big as eggs, and serve to feed pigs; while the cups are exported, being rich in tannic acid. In a number of islands peculiar wines are made, many of them being unattractive to strangers. Parian marble is still quarried; but the island of Paros is a desolate spot.

Houses in the Greek islands are extremely simple. In Anaphi, for instance, they consist mostly of one long narrow room, with a street-door, a window on each side of it, and one above it. They are

Houses.

white-washed within and without, and each house has its round vaulted stove, about five yards from the house. In some islands many of the houses are perfect hovels, where the families live with their pigs, their fowls, and their store of wood around them; while the baby's only cradle is the pig-trough. In other cases the fowls and even lambs occupy the space under the beds! In some mountain villages, as in Keos, the flat roofs of the houses adjoin; and it is customary to enter by the roof, the alleys being given up to the pigs. It is possible to walk for a long distance without leaving the roofs, going from one to the other by little staircases or bridges. Frequently the houses are utterly comfortless, owing to their abounding damp, rain pouring in through windows and roof.

The Greek islanders are often passionately fond of dancing, and there are many local dances. At Anaphi, the Systa, danced only by men, is very curious. Dancing and music. The men stand in a semicircle, with their hands on each other's shoulders, and then move slowly backwards and forwards, gradually quickening till the motion becomes extremely rapid. Many features of these dances render them admirably suited for the expression of feeling. In many houses the ancient lyre is still to be seen. The panpipe is frequently heard sounding pleasantly on the hill-side. It merely consists of two reeds hollowed out, and placed side by side in a larger reed. Straws run up the smaller reeds, and there are, of course, the necessary blow-holes.

Education is very deficient, or almost non-existent, in many of the islands, and superstitions are handed down unchecked. Even the Greek Church becomes the propagator of these superstitions, having adapted so many of them to its saint worship. In Naxos, is Mount Zia (formerly Dios), with a church at whose altar a shepherd is accustomed to swear to his innocence if charged with stealing a sheep or a goat. The peasants still say, when there is an earthquake, "God is shaking His hair." But Syra has its university, of high repute, which does good work; and Mr. Bent says, "If all the Greeks were like those of Syra, there

Education.

Syra.

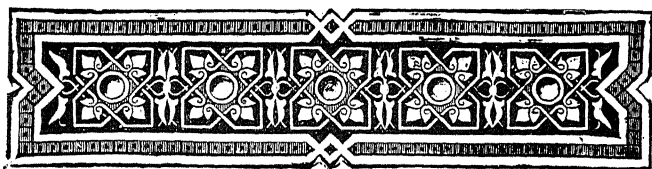
could be no question as to who should rule at Constantinople." Many of the people are refugees from Chios, or their descendants.

THE CRETANS.

The long, narrow, mountainous island of Crete has a romantic history, and contains a large Greek population, dominated by a few Turks. The heroic struggles the Cretans have made for independence, and the amount of self-government they have gained, indicate that at a future time they will certainly be united to the Greek

kingdom. The home of the famous Minos, the
Minos. great lawgiver, and first possessor of naval power, Crete failed to gain a leading position in early Greek history, owing to the want of a common bond between its cities and communities; and, in fact, the island suffered long from continual civil wars. The Romans subdued Crete in B.C. 67, and made it a province. The Byzantine empire inherited and kept it till 823, when the Saracens took it. It was recovered in 960 by Nicephorus Phocas; but after the partition of the Greek
Venetian rule. empire, early in the 13th century, it passed into the hands of Venice for more than four hundred years. The Venetians combined the promotion of material prosperity with oppressive government, and many times the people rebelled.

In 1645 the Turks first attacked Crete seriously; and in 1648 began the celebrated siege of the chief city, Candia, which lasted till September 1669, when
Turkish domination. Crete passed under Turkish rule. Many of the inhabitants became Mahometans; and the island was one of the worst governed portions of the Turkish empire. From 1821 to 1830, the Cretans valiantly fought for independence; and in 1830 the island was transferred to the sway of Mehemet Ali, viceroy of Egypt. But this only lasted ten years; and while recent Turkish rule has allowed some local self-government, revolts have again and again occurred. The mountaineers, known as Sfakiots, have all along preserved much independence, and retain to a large extent the customs and manners of their forefathers.



CHAPTER XIX.

The Turks.

Mongolian origin of the Turks—The Ottoman Turks—Early conquests—
Taking of Constantinople—Decline of Turkish power—Turkish officialism
—The Turk a warrior—Marriages with Circassians and Europeans—
Character of the Turks—Education.



A GRAND TURK.

southern route, from Asia Minor.
the great invaders of Europe.

THE Turks are among the most alien inhabitants of Europe — a ruling caste rather than a nation — a proselytising company of Mahometans who have succeeded in absorbing many subject and diverse races by force, or in making them assume the outward garb of Mahometanism. They are truly a Mongoloid people, not Semitic like the Saracens, although they entered Europe by the southern route, from Asia Minor. They are the last of the great invaders of Europe. Since their coming,

Europe has reversed the order of history since the Roman time. Spain, Holland, and Great Britain have repeated the Roman deeds of conquest, and peopled wider tracts of the earth than Romans ever saw.

The name Turk is a wide one, taking in a great many Mongol people, including most of the inhabitants of **The Ottoman** Turkestan. But the ruling class in Turkey **Turks.** are distinguished as Ottoman or Osmanli Turks, from Othman or Osman, their first great leader (1299-1326). Their history in Asia will be referred to elsewhere. After considerable struggles, the Ottoman Turks took Adrianople in 1361. They made rapid conquests

under the first Sultan Bajazet (1389-1402), over

Early the varied and conquests. disunited races of the Balkan peninsula, conquering or plundering the greater part of it, but not as yet possessing Constantinople. But Timor or Tamerlane's great victory at Angora (1402) checked the Turkish advance for a time, until Mahomet the Conqueror. (1451-1481), having taken Constantinople in 1453, subdued



STREET SCENE IN TURKEY.

the whole peninsula, except some parts held by Venice and the Montenegrin mountaineers. He was **Taking of** recognised as superior lord of Hungary, Transylvania, Moldavia, and much of South Russia. **Constanti-** **nople.** In the sixteenth century this became an actual rule; and many more conquests in Asia and Africa were gathered in to the Ottoman empire. Crete was conquered in the middle of the seventeenth century, and in 1676 Podolia was won from Poland.

Their defeat at Vienna in 1683 was the commencement of the decline of the power of the Turks. In 1699 the peace of Carlowitz gave all Peloponnesus to Venice;

but it was won back a score of years later; and it was not till the present century that the Greek peninsula was gradually lost to the Turks. But other losses, already detailed, have reduced the population immediately under Turkish dominion to less than five millions, of whom only half are Mahometans.

Decline of
Turkish
power.

The Turks, as Mahometans under an absolute ruler, can never become assimilated to the European nations. Like the Russians, they recognise solely official rank. The Grand Vizier or any official may rise, and frequently has risen, from the lowest Moslem ranks.

Turkish
officialism.



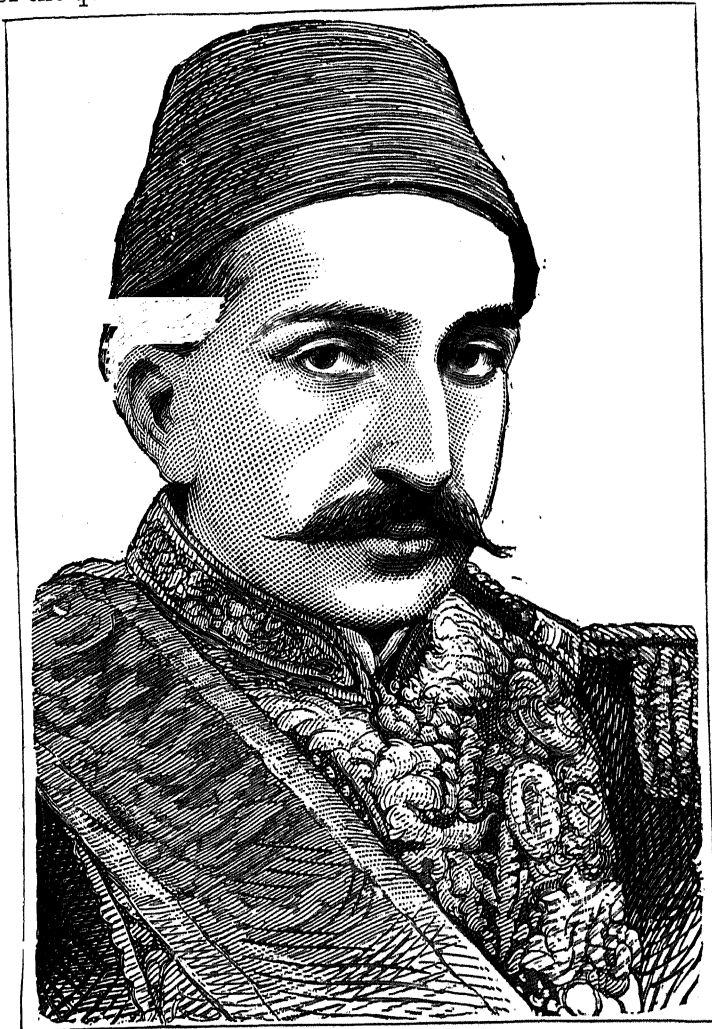
TURKS.

Even the Sultan may be the son of a slave raised to be a Sultana. Besides the Viziers, or ministers, the Sultan is advised by the Divan, or imperial council, and the Sheikh-ul-Islam, with the ulemas or interpreters of the Koran. Each province is known as a Vilayet, and has a Vali or ruler, removable at the Sultan's pleasure.

However devoted to Mahometanism, the Turk is primarily a warrior. In proportion as he loses this character, he dies or becomes effete. As a soldier, the Turk is surpassed by few, having courage and resolution in the highest degree, combined with strategic skill of the most marked kind. Yet in many

The Turk
a warrior.

of the qualities that used to distinguish Turks, the present

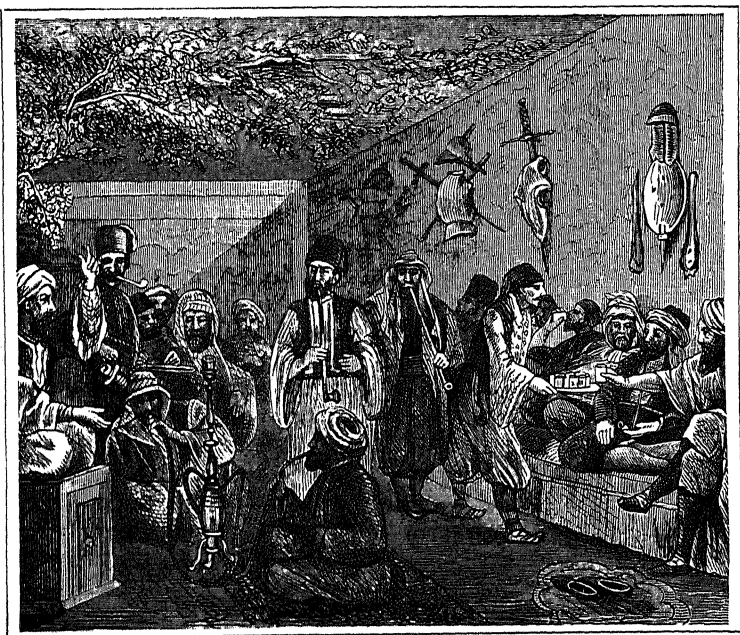


SULTAN ABDUL HAMID II.

people are very deficient; and this, with the increasing

patriotism of the Slavs, accounts for their falling back in European dominion of late years. Hitherto Asia Minor has supplied a constant succession of Turkish levies; but the available supply is certainly diminishing.

Probably owing to their constant marriages with Circassian and Georgian and European women, the Turks have approximated decidedly to a European type, being



A TURKISH COFFEE HOUSE.

no darker than Spaniards and Italians, and having a special dignity of manner. Hospitality and good fellowship are conspicuous in them, but not a fondness for hard work. The Turk will let any one perform his work for him, so that he does not do it himself. The attachment of the lower people to their religion is one of their best features; and it is associated with a comparative absence of intemper-

Marriages
with Cir-
cassians and
Europeans.

ance which does them much credit. Polygamy, though **Character of** theoretically permissible, is not largely practised, and the lower classes have but one wife. **the Turks.** The wealthy maintain their harem in strict seclusion, and find it a very expensive luxury, and not always a comfort, owing to the extravagance and frequent dissensions of their wives. Smoking is largely indulged in by both sexes.

Education is in a poor condition among the Turks, excepting as regards the Koran, and that chiefly **Education.** among the upper classes. The leading officials who govern have, however, a considerable amount of Western learning; but the Turk, as a whole, is not progressing either in agriculture or manufactures. His sway appears bound to come to an end. Even in Adrianople the Turks are continually decreasing, while the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are increasing.

Perhaps many of the signs of Turkish transformation are equally certain indications of approaching downfall. The Turk, ceasing to be a warrior or a fanatic, has no *raison d'être*. "There is no bastinadoing, no hanging of thieves, not even of murderers; and no baker convicted of selling short weight has had his ear nailed to his own door-post for the last fifteen years. The Sultan objects, like the kings of Holland and Belgium, to sign death warrants; and the only punishment of murderers is to be sentenced to ten or fifteen years' imprisonment, terms which they generally commute for themselves by escaping." (*Times*, Nov. 6, 1886.) Turkish diplomacy has become a byword for procrastination and indecision, sure signs of weakness. The well-to-do Turk's ambition seems to be to transform himself into a Western gentleman. The ladies aim at a corresponding change, and wear their yashmaks very thin, especially if they are pretty. Their mantles, made of striped red and white silk-gauze stuffs, are well fitted, and the Western corset is worn; and they have discarded large loose slippers in favour of high-heeled boots. They drive through the bazaars in barouches, unattended by eunuchs.

In debt, without good or strong government, largely

effeminate, hemmed in by enemies, Turkey must decline ; and Europe closely watches the last act of the long drama



HAREM BEAUTY.

of Turkish rule at Constantinople, Austria, Russia, and perhaps others, coveting yet further slices of the "sick man's" domains.



GIPSIES.

CHAPTER XX.

The Gipsies.

A people, not a nation—Habits and character—History—Persecution—Resistance to settlement—Hindu origin—Indian customs—Regard for the dead—Domestic affection—Love of out-door Life—Gipsies in Roumania.

THOUGH not a nation, the gipsies are most certainly a people, and present one of the strangest problems to the investigator. They are found everywhere in Europe, in many parts of Asia, and have even wandered to America and Australia. Wandering incessantly, their hand against every man's and every man's against theirs, untamable and ever hostile to civilisation, the gipsies form a picturesque feature in European life, if rather a troublesome and unpalatable one. Fortune-telling, tinkering, and chair-mending, fowl-stealing, and camping-out in most unconventional guise are associated in our minds with the gipsies. Their dark complexion and black hair, their peculiar insinuating and treacherous eyes, their aquiline noses,

high cheek-bones, and prominent brows readily mark them out as alien to our race. Orientals they evidently are, to any one familiar with Eastern types; and when they first wandered into Europe, early in the fourteenth century, they were believed to come from Egypt, and acquired the name "gipsies" in consequence. They rapidly spread, and reached our shores probably in the fifteenth century. For a good while their Eastern stories of former magnificence and of the persecutions to which they had been subjected stood them

History.

in good stead; and they were received as honoured guests by princes, themselves assuming titles of distinction. It appears that James V. of Scotland even gave "oure louit Johnne Fawe, lord and erle of Litill Egipt," a commission to exercise authority over all "Egyptians" in his realm.

The gipsies soon, however, improved their opportunities to such good account that they became public nuisances and depredators; and various countries found it necessary either to banish them or to take severe measures against them. And now they were as much despised

Persecution.

and maledicted as they had before been encouraged; and any man might without scruple commit any crime against them, without fear of punishment. They were burnt, hanged, or drowned as witches; and even being seen in their company came to be considered a crime. Consequently, the gipsies were not slow to retaliate; and many were the true tales told of their kidnapping beautiful children and heirs. The Romany, as they call themselves, continued to exist in spite of persecution, and in some cases have shown themselves extremely amenable to kindness. In others,

Resistance
to
settlement.

however, they have resisted all attempts to tame or settle them, or to show them kindness; and to a large extent they remain to-day the same wandering race they have always been, possessing a strange power of insight into character, and continually able to charm silver out of the hands of the Europeans in exchange for "fortunes," for chair-mending, or for doubtful bargains in horses.

As to the origin of the gipsies, that is conclusively

proved by their language, combined with their physical appearance. The bulk of the Romany words are akin to Hindu words, although intermixed with them ^{Hindu origin.} are words gathered from the various nations among whom they have sojourned. Physically they may be regarded as a mixture of low-caste Hindu tribes, largely Aryan in race, though considerably mingled with



GIPSY FAMILY IN THE CRIMEA.

darker and more primitive races represented among the Indian hill tribes. They retain numbers of ^{Indian customs.} Indian customs and even traces of Hindu worship. Many customs of theirs savour of paganism and of nature-worship. The dead are sincerely mourned and waked, and the possessions of the deceased are burnt. In many cases the gipsies will abstain from a thing the

deceased liked, or avoid that by which he came to grief, with the utmost self-denial. "Some men," said a gipsy, "won't eat meat because the brother or sister that died was fond of it; some won't drink ale for five or six years; some won't eat the favourite fish that the child ate; some won't eat potatoes, or drink milk, or eat apples, and all for the dead. Some

Regard for
the dead.



GIPSIES IN HUNGARY.

won't play cards or the fiddle—'that's my poor boy's tune'—and some won't dance."

In domestic affection and morals among themselves, however, the gypsies stand high. They are affectionate and attached to one another, though very secretive from outsiders. But some can gain their confidence. "I have found them," writes Mr. Leland,

Domestic
affection.

"more cheerful, polite, and grateful than the lower orders of other races in Europe or America; and I believe that when their respect and sympathy are secured, they are quite as upright. Like all people who are regarded as outcasts, they are very proud of being trusted, and under this influence will commit the most daring acts of honesty." But this, at the same time, goes with an utter lack of morals as regards other races.

His love of nature and of life in the open-air has been one of the most special traits of the gipsy, who can scarcely in any case be persuaded to take up a settled life; while it has been more feasible for many former dwellers in towns to assume a sort of gipsy life, and, when they could obtain admission, to join themselves to gipsy caravans.

"The gipsies of to-day," says a writer in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," "can hardly be said to have a distinctive garb, though certain minutiae of dress still render them easily recognisable. In Transylvania, their women's earrings differ in pattern from those of the natives; the Hungarian gipsy chief wears silver buttons with a serpent crest; and his old-fashioned English brother decks his Newmarket coat with spade-guineas or crown pieces. The English gipsy woman may be known by her bright silk handkerchief, her curiously-plaited hair, her massy rings, and her coral or bead necklace." Some attempts have lately been made by Mr. George Smith of Coalville to secure the education of gipsy children in England; but public apathy has prevented much progress.

Although we cannot go into details about the gipsies in particular countries, we may note that they are most

Gipsies in numerous in Hungary, Turkey, and Roumania.
Roumania. In the latter small country they number, it is said, between two and three hundred thousand, and were till 1848 liable to be sold along with the land on which they squatted. They were long kept in severe slavery there; and at present they perform many of the most laborious and menial offices, and are regarded in many respects like negroes in slave-owning countries.



GERMAN AND POLISH JEWS.

CHAPTER XXI.

The Jews in Europe.

The dispersion—Early wide diffusion—The Empire and Judaism—Persecution in Middle Ages—Expulsion from England and France—The Jews in Spain and Portugal—The modern Jews in England—The Jews in France—German Jews—Austrian Jews—Russian Jews—Roumanian Jews—Physical characters of Jews.

ALTHOUGH we cannot here go fully into the history and characteristics of the Jews, a brief account will be given of their history and present condition in Europe. The dispersion of Jews, which began in the Assyrian and Babylonian captivities, culminated after the Roman destruction of Jerusalem, ^{The} dispersion. in A.D. 70, when more than seven hundred Jews were taken to Rome. For some centuries those leading Jews who remained in Palestine moulded the rabbinical traditions into the firm law of the Mishna; eventually the Talmud was completed in the sixth century, and Judaism

was fully equipped to exist as a compact religious community when national life had become impossible.

In the first century, there were Jewish settlements in many parts of Greece, Thrace and Macedonia, Rome, and

Early wide diffusion. is well known how much this dispersion promoted the first diffusion of Christianity. Their distinctness from all natives, and their early addiction to and success in trade and in usury, made them generally disliked; and the emperors more than once banished them from Rome.

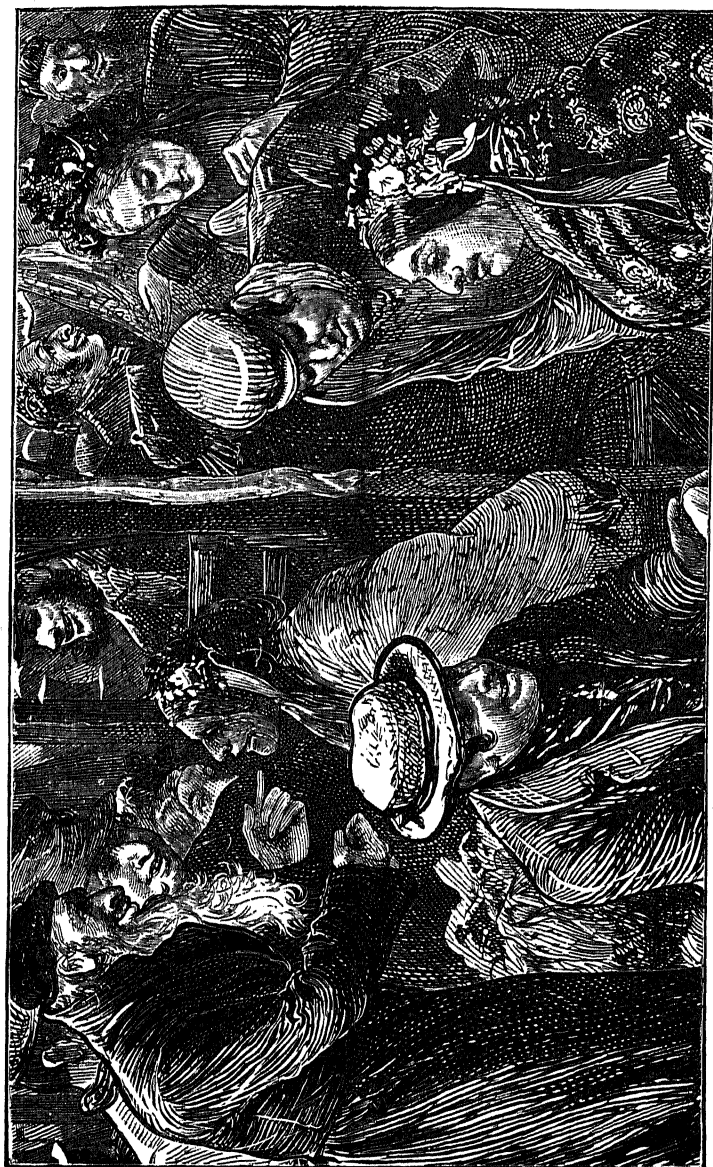
When the Christian religion was adopted by Constantine, the State began to persecute the Jews for their religion. In the year 315, Constantine made conversion from Christianity to Judaism penal; and Constantius made marriages between Jews and Christians punishable with death. Honorius declared Jews ineligible for civil or military service; and Justinian harassed them still more than previous emperors.

At first the Jews prospered under the Germanic Empire, only being locally oppressed. They did not attempt to hold land, but stuck to trade, being even largely engaged in the slave-traffic. For a long time they had no special legislation directed against them, although the Christian Church continually endeavoured to subject them to disabilities. In the Middle Ages they were compelled to wear a conspicuous badge, and often suffered severely from popular outbreaks. Although the Popes discountenanced active persecutions, the populace, enraged at their exactions of interest, which had been forbidden to Christians by the Church, readily seized the pretext of religious differences, to treat them as heathens and heap contumely on them. At last the

Persecution in Middle Ages.

Expulsion from England and France.

Jews came to have no rights as citizens, and were unscrupulously robbed and ill-treated by monarchs, notably by many English ones. They were expelled from England in 1290, from France in 1395, from Spain and Portugal in 1492 and 1495. They took refuge in Germany and Italy, and, when expelled from one city or State, they could take refuge in another.



JEW'S CLOTHES MART, IN HOUNSDITCH.

It must be confessed that the Jews have owed much to the persecutions they have undergone, without which it is doubtful if they could have maintained their individuality. In Spain many of them became Roman Catholics rather than be banished, and consequently they were speedily absorbed in the nation, having been granted full civil rights. In Portugal, where civil rights and dignities were denied them, they remained apart, though they were compelled to change their religion.

A vivid picture of the past treatment of the Jews has been given by Mr. Israel Davis in the "Encyclopædia Britannica." "Cut off from their fellow-citizens, excluded by oppressive laws from all trades except that of peddling in old clothes, and even from buying certain classes of these, specially taxed, confined to Ghettos and Judengassen, strictly prohibited from entering some towns, limited in numbers in others, forbidden to marry except under restrictions designed to check the growth of the Jewish population, disabled from employing Christian servants or being members of trade guilds, the Jews seemed by their abject condition to deserve the evils which were its cause." When a man of great intellect arose among them, like Spinoza, he was almost persecuted to death.

Cromwell readmitted the Jews to England; but the Test Acts excluded them from offices and from the bar. Many of the immigrants were Spanish Jews, like the Disraelis, the Ricardos, and the Lopes family. The modern Jews in England. German Jews came over in large numbers after the accession of the house of Hanover. In 1832 the right to vote was given them; but they were not admitted to Parliament till 1858. In modern times several Jews have been Lord Mayor of London. There are over 60,000 Jews in Great Britain; there were only 453 in Ireland in 1881.

There are about the same number of Jews in France as in Great Britain. They began to return to France in the sixteenth century. At the French Revolution they were admitted to full citizenship; and they played an important part in the wars of the

Republic and Empire. Napoleon I. summoned a great Sanhedrin in 1807, which drew up important resolutions, by which the Jews in France are generally bound. Since 1831 the rabbis have been paid by the State. The ministers Cremieux, Fould, and Jules Simon, Oppert the Assyriologist, the composer Meyerbeer, the actresses Rachel and Sarah Bernhardt, are among the most notable French Jews.

In Germany the condition of the Jews was first elevated by the intellectual vigour and social influence of Moses Mendelssohn (1729-1786), grandfather of the celebrated musician. In the last century the ^{German Jews.} civil restrictions were gradually abolished, and consequently transfer to Christianity became more frequent, giving to the world such geniuses as Heine, Mendelssohn, and Neander. Various reformed congregations arose, so that now-a-days in most German towns there exist congregations of Orthodox and Reformed Jews. At present, Jews, by creed or descent, are in the forefront of great movements in Germany. Lassalle and Karl Marx the apostles of socialism, Karl Blind and Herr Lasker the Radicals, Auerbach the novelist, Benfey and Bernays the scholars, are among the most noted names. The Jews number over half a million in Germany.

Austria was long notorious for ill-treating Jews; and they have only recently (1860-68) acquired a tolerable degree of freedom. Their numbers approach ^{Austrian and} a million and a half, a very large proportion ^{other Jews.} being in Austrian Poland and in Hungary. In Italy they were long most oppressively treated, and restricted to special quarters of towns. They now number only about fifty thousand. In Greece they are only a few thousand, but are quite free. They have recently begun to return to Spain and Portugal.

Nearly seventy thousand Jews are found in Holland, where they have enjoyed great freedom during this century. In Norway and Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, and Switzerland they are comparatively few.

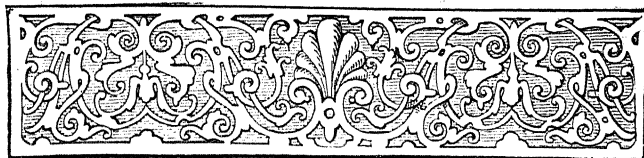
In Russia, the Jews are more than two millions six hundred thousand, notwithstanding that they are more

severely treated than anywhere. The Polish Jews were very numerous when Russia conquered Poland, and they have a language called Jiddish, which is a curious mixture of German and Hebrew, in which a considerable literature exists. The intolerance of the Russians has nearly ruined the extensive commerce and manufactures of the Polish and Lithuanian Jews, and they are loaded with taxes. They are kept out of many callings; and the people are permitted and even encouraged to rise against them, which has led to odious acts of oppression.

The Roumanian Jews are also very numerous, being innkeepers, tradesmen, and artisans. They are subjected, too, to considerable disabilities. Still, the chief bankers are Jews; and the Roumanians would find it a hard matter to get on without them. They number about 70,000 in European Turkey, where, by the exertions of Sir Moses Montefiore, they now suffer under no disabilities, and are eligible to offices.

Jews are now-a-days the shortest and narrowest of Europeans, and round-headed like the Aryans. They have no absolutely-characteristic feature, despite the prevalent impression to the contrary. They have 21 per cent. blue-eyed, about 30 per cent. grey-eyed, and 49 per cent. brown; 29 per cent. are fairhaired, 55 brown, and 16 black-haired. The curved aquiline nose is possessed by but 31 per cent., while 60 per cent. are straight-nosed, 3 per cent. flat-nosed, and 6 per cent. *retroussé*. From these facts it is evident that the Jewish race is by no means pure, and, in spite of its isolation, has been largely mixed with both dark and light types. Yet there has been preserved in spite of these mixtures a striking Jewish type, very largely handing down to us features which were prevalent at the time of Christ.





CHAPTER XXII.

Distribution of European Races.

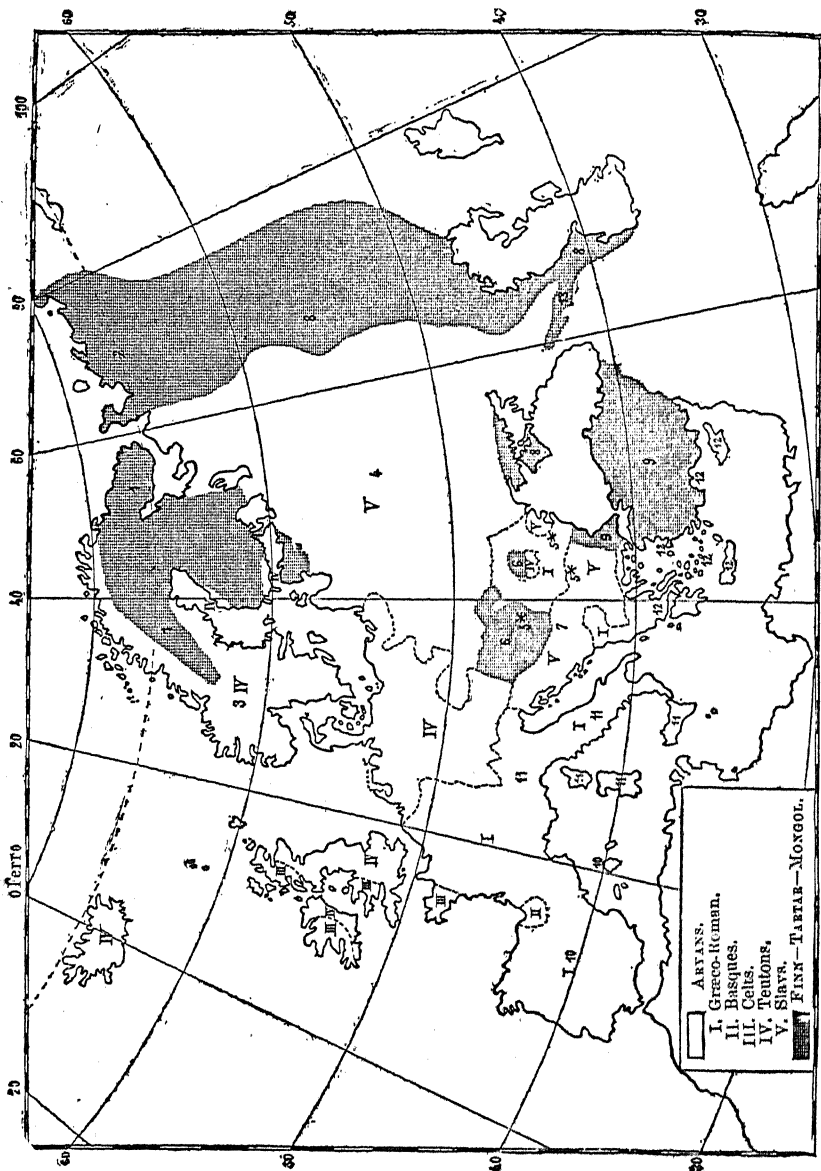
THE map of Europe on the next page indicates the main European races. The Arabic figures stand for the following:—1. Lapps; 2. Samoyedes; 3. Scandinavians; 4. Russians; 5. Gipsies; 6. Magyars; 7. Serbs; 8. Tartars; 9. Turks; 10. Spaniards; 11. Italians; 12. Greeks; 13. Circassians, etc. The light-coloured portion of the map shows the regions where the Aryans greatly predominate, and five main groups are indicated by Roman numbers: I. Græco-Romans; II. Basques; III. Celts; IV. Teutons; V. Slavs. The shaded regions are those which Mongoloid peoples inhabit in considerable numbers, though not by any means to the exclusion of Aryans.

The following table shows approximately the distribution of races in Europe:—

CAUCASIANS.

ARYANS (ALSO TERMED INDO-EUROPEANS).

A group of races which are believed to have originated in Central Asia, and successively sent forth branches west into Europe, south into India, and south-west into Persia and Asia Minor. Successive waves of these invaders reached Western Europe. The Germans pressing upon the French, and the Slavs on the Germans, are the modern forms of what used to be the incursions of invading hordes.



Approximate Numbers.

CELTS:—Probably the earliest Aryans of Western Europe of whom we have modern representatives. Besides their evident members, they contribute a large portion of the basis of the English and the French peoples.

Irish	3,000,000
Gaels (Scotch Highlands)	500,000
Welsh	1,000,000
Cornish	200,000
Bretons (Brittany)	1,300,000
<i>Total</i>	<u>6,000,000</u>

TEUTONS:—The fair, tall type of Northern and Central Europe, including the greater proportion of the inhabitants of Germany, Austria proper, Holland, Belgium (part), Denmark, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and England. They have also in modern times become widely distributed in all parts of the globe. They are to a large extent Protestants.

Scandinavians.	Norwegians	2,000,000
	Danes	2,000,000
	Swedes	4,500,000
	English	34,000,000
	Saxons (Germany and Prussia)	40,000,000
Low German.	Dutch and Flemish	8,000,000
	Suabians (Bavaria & Württemberg)	5,000,000
High German.	South German (Austria & Switzerland)	15,000,000
	<i>Total</i>	<u>110,500,000</u>

LETTO-LITHUANIANS:—Now confined to the South-east of the Baltic, formerly extending from the Baltic to the Black Sea. The original Prussians belonged to this stock.

Letts and Lithuanians of Livonia, Courland (Russia), and East Prussia	3,000,000
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GRÆCO-ROMANS:—There is no sufficiently marked distinction of stock between Greeks and Romans; and their descendants, too, are very much intermixed. They became predominant both in the Spanish Peninsula and in France; but it must be remembered that very many Teutons, Celts, and other races have gone to the making of the French, Spanish, and Portuguese peoples. They are mostly of a swarthy complexion, and are to a large extent Roman Catholics.

Albanians	1,500,000
Greeks	3,500,000
Roumanians and kindred Peoples	6,500,000
Italians	34,000,000
French and Walloons (Belgium), including Swiss-French	42,000,000
Spaniards	16,000,000
Portuguese	4,300,000
<i>Total</i>	<u>107,800,000</u>

	Approximate Numbers.
SLAVS:—The last great body of Aryan immigrants into Europe, and that which has extended its borders most during the last 250 years. As a rule, their complexion is swarthy, and the majority belong to the Greek Church.	<div> <div> Russians . . . 71,000,000 Poles, in Russia, Austria, and Prussia . . 11,000,000 Servians, Croats, and Slovenians (Austrian Empire) . . 8,000,000 Czechs (Bohemia and Moravia) . . . 7,000,000 </div> <div> Total <u>97,000,000</u> </div> </div>

GIPSIES:—Probably wanderers from India, and related to some of the low-caste Hindus . . . 500,000

IRANIANS.

A group of people for the most part inhabiting South-west Asia, of which Persians are a chief branch, together with the Armenians.

ARMENIANS:—Distributed in Turkey and South-eastern Europe, and belonging to the Greek Church . . . 300,000

CIRCASSIANS:—Partly distributed in Turkey, Greece, and Russia, but more properly belonging to Asia (which see) . . . 300,000

SEMITES.

A very marked type of the Caucasians, with peculiar languages, the Jews and Arabs being the main divisions.

JEWS:—Widely spread throughout Europe, often recognisable by their hooked nose, but otherwise varying considerably in features, and not inconsiderably mixed with the races among whom they live . . . 6,500,000

IBERIANS.

BASQUES:—Inhabiting Northern Spain and South-western France . . . 600,000

MONGOLOIDS.

This group, mainly Asiatic, is represented in Europe by races which have either preceded many of the Caucasians or have invaded Europe at different times during or between the successive Aryan inroads.

FINNISH GROUP:—	{ Bulgarians (who have adopted a Slavonic language)	3,500,000
	{ Permians and Volga Finns, &c., of Russian Empire	2,000,000
	{ Lapps and Finns (North Scandinavia and Finland)	3,000,000
	{ Magyars (Hungary)	6,500,000
	{ Samoyedes (North Russia)	5,000
TURKS:—The ruling race of the Ottoman Empire, belonging to the Osmanli division of the Turks		1,250,000
TARTARS:—Kirghiz, Kalmucks, &c., who have invaded and settled at various periods in European Russia.		3,500,000

Thus it is seen that Europe is practically in the hands of three great subdivisions of Aryan people, the Teutons, Græco-Romans, and Slavs, in about equal numbers. The Basques, Letto-Lithuanians, and Celts are specimens of races once more numerous, now apparently destined to be gradually blended with other races. The Jews are a race apart, who have influenced or governed other races to an extent which is enormous in the aggregate, and who seem likely long to retain their distinctness.